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ABSTRACT

During colonial times, education in Africa was based on the European system of education, and the European languages remained the only languages taught in schools. These languages were often taught by poorly trained teachers who passed their errors on to students. Major policy revisions and modifications in language education, teacher training, and textbook and examination writing are changing the situation. These educational and language policy shifts are examined in seven anglophone and francophone countries in western, central, and eastern Africa, including: Senegal, The Gambia, Liberia, Gabon, Rwanda, Burundi, and Kenya. Changes in these countries are seen as indicative of general trends in other African nations. The study examines each of the seven countries' basic cultural and linguistic compositions, present school systems and policies regarding indigenous and foreign languages, teacher training and professional preparation, textbook preparation and use, the use of broadcasting to teach language, and adult functional literacy programs. Educational reforms and changes common to all seven countries are examined, and their common educational needs and priorities are discussed. (Author/MSE) (Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education)

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NEW DIRECTIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

A Seven-Country Study of Current Policies and Programs for Teaching Official and National Languages and Adult Functional Literacy

Edmun B. Richmond

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	LANGUAGE POLICIES: FROM COLONY TO NATION.	1
	Map of Study Area	5
II.	THE FRANCOPHONE COUNTRIES	7
	Senegal	7
	Gabon	17
	Burundi	21
	Rwanda.	28
III.	THE ANGLOPHONE COUNTRIES.	35
	Kenya	35
	Liberia	42
	The Gambia.	45
IV.	ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS.	51
INDEX		61

PREFACE

It is a distinct pleasure to call the attention of interested readers to this monograph by Professor Edmun Richmond. The present volume represents a distinct contribution to our growing but, as yet, fragmentary knowledge of language-education policies in contemporary Africa. Professor Richmond presents a detailed and timely seven-country study of selected anglophone and francophone African nations. He has provided us with a capsule description of the language situation in the country; the policy or policies with respect to choice of official and national language(s); information concerning the structure and availability of formal education within the country and the choice and sequencing of languages for such instruction; information about teacher training programs, and other resources which exist to facilitate effective education throughout the country; and a description of extant adult functional literacy programs. The information is comprehensive and up-to-date. The material is presented in a scholarly, dispassionate manner which provides the reader with a solid grasp of basic facts about language-education policies in these seven countries.

Many English-speaking readers will find the information on the four francophone countries -- Burundi, Gabon, Rwanda and Senegal -- to be particularly valuable because there is a paucity of such information for the monolingual English-speaking reader. In addition, readers will find particularly useful Richmond's discussion of other foreign languages which are taught formally in the various countries.

Followers of language-education policies for African countries will also be interested to learn about the changes that are occurring in many countries to promote the use of local languages for initial formal instruction. Likewise, readers will be interested to learn about decisions that have been taken in Senegal and in Burundi to enhance the status, role and teaching of English within those francophone countries.

The present monograph, although brief, is informative, insightful and engaging. I found it to be an excellent companion piece to the papers prepared by Deborah MacMillan (1980) and Tanya Thevenin (1980) for the World Bank which describe the use of languages for

instructional purposes in anglophone and francophone African countries, respectively. Richmond's volume will provide a baseline against which to view the effects of future changes in language policy within francophone and anglophone Africa. I commend this volume to your attention.

G. Richard Tucker
Center for Applied Linguistics
October, 1982

CHAPTER I

LANGUAGE POLICIES: FROM COLONY TO NATION

When the European powers relinquished their claims on the continent of Africa, they acknowledged an independent African spirit and right of self-determination. They also left these newly-formed nations with many problems of existence. Each country was forced to consider all the problems impeding their survival and development in the last half of the twentieth century, and to develop strategies to solve their problems. Among the areas of concern were national policies regarding official and national language status, and the teaching of these languages.

Africa is a continent of immense distances and widely spread populations, as well as a continent with a great number and diversity of languages and cultural entities. Each country has several languages and cultural groups within its borders. During the colonial period, the language of the European power was the only language used in affairs of government, commerce, and legal matters. The European language was taught in the schools, with local languages having little or no place in the curriculum, either as a language of instruction or as a subject to be studied.

In spite of this educational policy, rural Africans did not learn the colonial language because most schools were concentrated in the areas surrounding larger cities. Knappert estimated that "98% of the people of Africa are not familiar with a European language."[1] The Europeans did not invest time in learning the local African languages, since European contact with the African was limited and all colonial business was conducted in the colonial language. The burden of language learning fell on the African. A corps of African interpreters developed as a result. A new cadre of colonially-educated Africans was formed. They acted as the middlemen between European and African, and were able to advance in the colonial hierarchy because of their competence in the colonial language.[2]

Independence brought on the need to develop a course of national unity, to bring the various tribal factions into the concept of the new nation. One of the highest priorities of the new governments was to

render policy regarding the status of the colonial language as well as the recognition of indigenous languages as an important and natural means of communication. The formation of these language policies determined which would become official and national languages. Garvin describes official languages as those which have "official recognition by some governmental authority" and national languages as those which "serve the entire territory of a nation rather than some regional or ethnic subdivision," as well as "function as a national symbol."[3]

Which language or languages were to be chosen for national or official status was a difficult decision. Since tribal rivalries ran high, the young governments had to be careful not to slight one ethnic group in favor of another. Armstrong identified the condition: "So important, indeed, are their respective languages that people make them the very symbol and banner of the cultural and tribal differences that today rack Africa..."[4] Ferguson determined two main factors to be considered in the choice, "the number of languages and the relative dominance of languages."[5] Although national languages were chosen from among the indigenous groupings, most nations retained the ex-colonial language as the official language. This was done largely to promote national unity, but also to maintain easier communication with other parts of Africa and the rest of the world. Several nations declared an indigenous language as official along with the ex-colonial language. To emphasize the importance of this problem, Armstrong wrote, "In Africa there is nothing new about the contact and conflict of people with different languages. What is new, in the modern world of school systems and bureaucracies, is the political importance of public decisions on language matters."[6] Weinstein corroborates the seriousness of the dilemma. "Choices made with respect to language affect most clearly the process of nation-building or integrating diverse peoples into a new level of community."[7] Along with policies in language, the new nations were confronted with educating large numbers of their populations. Education and language go hand in hand. The two are inseparable. Knappert recognized this relationship by writing, "the language problem is the most important problem for a developing country. Without language no education, without education, no development."[8]

But education requires the ability to read and write. One continuing and related problem of the new nations was, and still is, that the majority of their population are illiterate. After the World Conference on the Eradication of Illiteracy, in 1965, the United Nations established many literacy programs throughout the Third World, under the auspices of UNESCO and UNDP.[9] The Conference established the target for these programs to be in the area of adult functional literacy, and would contain programs in basic numeracy, reading, and writing. These programs would be in the national languages, and would be developed within each country, with the idea that they would provide skills so that adults could better cope with the practical problems of survival in day-to-day living, as well as aid in the concept of national unity. Bowers confirms the primacy of such programs. "Literacy teaching should be resolutely oriented towards development and should be an integral part not only of any national education plans but also of plans and projects for development in all sectors of the national life."[10] Most countries saw a natural bridge from literacy in national languages to adult literacy in their official languages at a later time.

Education during the colonial times was based on the system of the European country. These educational philosophies have by and large, continued through the transitional period into the African school systems of today. In spite of the recognized importance of the national languages, the European language remained for many years to be the one language taught in the schools. During colonial rule, the European languages were taught by European teachers. After independence, some expatriate teachers remained, but many left, which resulted in a lack of qualified teachers. New teachers had to come from the local population, whether qualified or not. Pay was poor, which certainly did not attract people who were qualified to teach. Many primary school teachers had little more than a secondary-level education themselves. There was little or no pedagogical training or professional preparation. That training which was available was often of poor quality. More often than not, the language teacher was himself a product of inferior language training and possessed a limited command of the European language. These inadequacies were passed on to the pupils. Dunstan discussed three weak language teaching areas which were common to all African nations, "the language

teachers themselves and their competence and knowledge of teaching methodology, the syllabuses, textbooks and examinations for language courses, and background research."[11]

But changes are being accomplished and major policy revisions and shifts in language education, teacher training, and textbook and examination writing have been executed in recent years, and new innovations and modifications are presently under way. The focus of this study is to examine these changes as well as the language education policies of the continent, as viewed in seven countries in West, Central, and East Africa. Although these countries fall within the category of both Francophone and Anglophone nations, they may be taken as indicative of the general trends in other African nations, since certain educational needs and priorities regarding languages are common to all nations in sub-Saharan Africa. The study will examine each of the seven countries' basic cultural and linguisitic composition, present school systems and policies regarding indigenous and foreign languages, teacher training and professional preparation, textbook preparation and usage, the use of broadcasting to teach language, and adult functional literacy programs. It will examine educational reforms and changes which are common to all seven countries, and finally will discuss the common educational needs and priorities for the future.

Map of the Study Area

Notes

[1]Jan Knappert, "Language Problems of the New Nations of Africa," Africa Quarterly, 5 (1956), p. 101.

[2]For a description of this phenomenon, see Elizabeth Colson, "Competence and Incompetence of Independence," Cultural Anthropology, 8 (1967), pp. 92-111.

[3]Paul L. Garvin, "Some Comments on Language Planning," in Joshua A. Fishman, ed., Advances in Language Planning, The Hague: Mouton, 1974, p. 71.

[4]Robert G. Armstrong, "Language Policies and Language Practices in West Africa," in Joshua Fishman, Charles A. Ferguson and Jyotirindra Das Gupta, eds., Language Problems of Developing Nations, New York: Wiley, 1968, p. 227.

[5]Charles A. Ferguson, "The Language Factor in National Development," in Frank A. Rice, ed., Study of the Role of Second Languages, Washington: Center for Applied Linguisitics, 1962, p. 11.

[6]Armstrong, p. 227.

[7]Brian Weinstein, "Language Planning in Francophone Africa," Language Problems and Language Planning, 4,1 (1980), p. 57.

[8]Knappert, pp. 95-96.

[9]UNESCO (ED/217), World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy: Final Report, Paris: UNESCO, 1975.

[10]John Bowers, "Language Problems and Literacy," in Joshua A. Fishman, Charles A. Ferguson and Jyotirindra Das Gupta, eds., Language Problems of Developing Nations, New York: Wiley, 1968, p. 381.

[11]Elizabeth Dunstan, "Language Teaching," in Thomas A. Sebeok, ed., Current Trends in Linguistics, 7, The Hague: Mouton, 1971, p. 576.

CHAPTER II

THE FRANCOPHONE COUNTRIES

Senegal

The Republic of Senegal is situated on the west coast of Africa, at that point of the continent which is geographically closest to North America. It is bounded on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Mauritania, on the east by Mali, and on the south by Guinea and Guinea-Bissau. Its area is 76,000 square miles, approximately equivalent to the size of Nebraska. The capital city is Dakar, a major port and air hub of the continent. During colonial rule, Dakar was the administrative and commercial capital of French West Africa. After independence in 1960, this immense territory was divided into nine separate nations. A 1978 estimate places the total population at 5,381,000. Senegal's main ethnic group is the Wolof, followed by the Pulaar, Sereer, Joola, Mandingo, and Soninke. The Sarakole and Bassari are smaller groups. All of these groups are predominantly Moslem, and contain a high degree of cultural similarity. The languages of the country are linguistically classified in the West Atlantic and Maninka branches of the Niger-Congo Family. About one-third of the population speaks Wolof as a first language. Another third speaks it as a second or third language. Although Wolof is the major indigenous language, it has no official status. French is the only official language of the country. Arabic is used widely as a religious language as a result of Islamic influence.

Senegal is divided into eight political regions, i.e., Cap Vert, Thiès, Diourbel, Fleuve, Oriental, Louga, Sine-Saloum, and Casamance. Each of these regions has its own school system. Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of six and fourteen. Pupils attend primary school from six to twelve years of age, and secondary school between the ages of thirteen and twenty. The country has 1184 primary schools and 173 secondary schools. General secondary education is modelled after the French system, and divided into two cycles, the first of four years, and the second of three years. There are seven technical and professional schools. In addition, Senegal has a teacher training college, the Ecole Normale Supérieure, and the University of Dakar.

Several foreign languages are taught in the country, including Spanish, Portuguese, German, Russian, Latin, and Arabic.

During the Colonial period, French was introduced immediately from the first day of primary school. A three-month total immersion crash course was viewed as the most suitable way to prepare pupils for success in the school system, regardless of the first language of the child. This policy was continued after independence until only recently. In January, 1981, at the Etats Généraux, a governmental meeting for improving education in Senegal, certain revolutionary changes were enacted which would affect the future course of language instruction in the country. The most important outcome of that meeting was the decision to begin primary education in the mother tongue of the pupil, and to continue in the mother tongue for the first two to three years. The exact length of time has not yet been determined. Programs are being developed in Wolof, Pulaar, Sereer, and Joola. The status of a program in Soninke is pending. French remains the official language, and will now be introduced in the middle of the second school year. It will then become the only language of instruction during the secondary school years.

Two additional language pronouncements resulted from the Etats Généraux. The study of English was decreed a national priority and made compulsory from the seventh to the thirteenth grades. This major language policy decision is evident in other Francophone countries on the continent as well. This shift in language emphasis is due to the recognition of the role of English in today's world as the prevalent international language in commerce, communications, and a variety of technical and scientific fields. The final outcome of the meeting was the re-evaluation of French and English texts, materials, and related methodology developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics at Dakar (CLAD). Although the CLAD program has been used for several years, a great deal of dissatisfaction surfaced, not only in the basic methodology, but also in the materials and teacher manuals.

The CLAD course in French was developed in Dakar in the early 70s.[1] In 1974, all seventh grades in the country were required to use the CLAD method in the

teaching of French. The courses contain a highly structured four-year program of audio-visual methodology, which relies heavily on tape recordings, paradigmatic quick-change drills, and an inflexible, rigid teaching schedule. Within this schedule, there was no room for teacher individuality or ingenuity, no sequencing of difficulty of the material, and no re-entry of previously learned material or vocabulary. Writing skills were not taught. Teachers complained about the length of the books, as well as poorly written teacher manuals, which offered no useful instruction. The Senegalese government spent millions of CFA on tape recorders, dolls and figurines, felt-boards, and similar equipment for the program. Tapes and tape recorders were stolen either at the docks or directly from the schools. Many recorders simply broke down in the climate of heat, humidity, and dust which blew in from the Sahara. A dead frog was even discovered inside one recorder! Although CLAD was responsible for the maintenance of the equipment, adequate personnel to repair the damaged recorders was lacking. In spite of materials being developed in Dakar by CLAD, they were printed in France and the United Kingdom, and ultimately sold back to Senegal at great cost.

These complaints carried over to CLAD's production of the English materials. During the development of these materials, not one native speaker of English was used or consulted, which gave the materials a gallic perception of the English language. Both the United States and United Kingdom language advisers requested a re-evaluation of the CLAD method, since both countries have large English programs in Senegal. The Ecole Normale Supérieure supported the U.S./U.K. position further pointing out that other Francophone countries had tried and subsequently rejected the use of CLAD materials, not only due to its expense, but also due to its inability to produce a large percentage of pupils whose command of French approached a standard acceptability for communication and study. The French representative of CLAD constantly vetoed any re-evaluation. The results of the Etats Généraux were to condemn the CLAD materials and to initiate a search for new materials and methodology. The English Section of the Ministry of National Education immediately contacted eight other Francophone countries to ascertain which books were being used for teaching English. The most successful was English for French-Speaking Africa.[2]

In the fall of 1981, a pilot study utilizing this text was initiated in forty first-year classes in twenty Senegalese schools. Results of the pilot study, which will continue through 1983, will determine further possible modifications in the English program.

The emphasis attached to the teaching of English in Senegal can be understood by examining the eleven interrelated organizations in the country which provide such programs of study or coordinate professional development services for teachers. These organizations not only provide English study in addition to that which is offered in the public schools, but also integrates aspects of their programs directly into the public school system. In order to provide a constant input and feedback to the English program, a governmental advisory committee, the Comité pour l'Enseignement de l'Anglais au Sénégal (CEAS) was formed in January, 1973, and received governmental approval through statute in 1975. The CEAS meets every six weeks from November to June. All institutions concerned with the teaching of English in the country are represented on the committee. These are the British Council, the British-Senegalese Institute, the Center for Applied Linguistics at Dakar, the English Department of the University of Dakar, the Center for English Teaching, the Ecole Normale Supérieure, the Ministry of National Education, the United States Information Agency (formerly called the U.S. International Communications Agency), and the U.S. Peace Corps. Members also belong to the Association of English Teachers in Senegal (ATES). The CEAS formulates recommendations on English teaching policy and refers them to the appropriate governmental authority. Its recommendations are regularly accepted and implemented.

All of the member institutions of the CEAS aid in the development of the English curriculum. Those which offer English language courses or teacher training programs will be briefly described. The British Council was established in 1934 by private initiative with support of the British Foreign Office. It received a Royal Charter in 1940, and became involved with disseminating general information about the United Kingdom, as well as promoting the English language and culture in other countries. The Council provides and administers a large overseas educational staff. In Senegal, it provides three English language teachers from the United Kingdom to help staff the

Ministry of National Education, the Ecole Normale Supérieure, and the British-Senegalese Institute. These teachers are engaged in teacher training and curriculum development.

The British-Senegalese Institute is an organ of the Ministry of Higher Education, although the British government provides active support in the form of technical assistance with British teachers and audio-visual materials. The Institute has nearly 800 students attending day and evening classes in conjunction with the Senegalese Hotel School, the Department of Tourism, or in preparation for the Cambridge English Language Examinations, the Brevet d'Etudes Practiques d'Anglais (BEPA), and the Diplôme d'Etudes Practiques d'Anglais (DEPA) exams. The Institute further provides special courses in English and intensive courses for teachers, bankers, diplomats, port and air authorities, and international agencies. It also assists the Senegalese government in the production of a highly successful English-by-radio service which is aired over the national radio networks.

The Center for Applied Linguistics at Dakar (CLAD) was created in 1963. At a congress at Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone, in April of that year, linguists of different nationalities expressed the desire that two centers for applied linguistics should be established on the African continent, one in Ibadan, Nigeria, for Anglophone Africa, the other in Dakar, for the Francophone countries. Three months later, CLAD was created by linguists at the University of Dakar. It was given official recognition on January 27, 1967, when it became a University Institute.[3] It was built around the French Department, the English Department, and the African National Languages Department. The objectives of the French and English Departments were to renovate and improve the teaching of those languages, French (at that time) in the primary schools, and English in the lycées and collèges. The African National Language Department's objectives were to study and promote the languages indigenous to Senegal. CLAD produces a series of textbooks in French and English, with associated audio-lingual tape drills and materials. These texts were used throughout Africa for several years, but much recent criticism has been aimed at them, and they are presently falling into disfavor.

The English Department, University of Dakar was founded in 1957, as part of the Faculté de Lettres et de Sciences Humaines. Plans are to transfer the department to Gaston Berger University, which is presently being completed near St. Louis, in the north of the country. The minimum prerequisite for admission into the department is the Baccalauréat. Primary school teachers who possess the Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique may take a special examination for entrance. Studies which lead to a B.A. degree usually take three years. The program is divided into three cycles. During the first two years of the first cycle, students prepare for the Diplôme Universitaire d'Etudes de Lettres (DUEL I and II). Coursework includes English Grammar, Linguistics, Phonetics, English Literature, including both British and American courses, African Literature, British and American Civilization, translation, language laboratory practice, French Grammar, an optional Latin course, and a required foreign or African language which can be chosen from the list of Arabic, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Russian, Joola, Sereer, Wolof, and Pulaar. In the first year of the second cycle, students prepare for the Certificat de Licence, which comprises two certificates, i.e., the humanities certificate, and the specialty certificate. A Master's Degree may be pursued in the second year of second cycle, and requires an additional year of study, plus the writing of a thesis.

The third cycle is undertaken by Master's graduates who wish to continue toward the doctorate. They first study for the Diplôme d'Etudes Approfondies (DEA). Candidates with the DEA may apply for doctoral studies. Two additional years of coursework are required before the dissertation may be submitted.

The highest academic degree awarded in Senegal is the Doctorat d'Etat. This degree requires that the candidate already possess the Ph.D. He is then required to spend five or more years preparing a dissertation. The final year of this preparation must be spend abroad.

The department currently has a staff of eleven lecturers and seven assistant lecturers. The student body consists of 266 first-year candidates. Some 100 undergraduates annually receive the B.A. degree, while 15 receive the M.A. In the past few years, the

department has graduated only one Ph.D.

The Center for English Teaching was originally established to train high-ranking civil servants. It operated under the auspices of the Ministry of National Education, but is now under the direction of the Ministry of Higher Education. The Center was financed by the American International Development Agency (AID), and uses American teachers and a variety of materials. Student enrollment is currently around 200, with approximately twelve students per class. The Center accepts beginners, and continues through a five-year sequence of courses. No particular language skill is stressed in the first three years. In the fourth year, emphasis is placed on conversational English. From the third year, regular sessions in the Center's language laboratory are integrated into the program. At this level, students prepare for the BEPA examination. The fourth and fifth years are spent in preparation for the DEPA exam.

The Ecole Normale Supérieure trains primary school inspectors, assistant inspectors, grants certificates, specifically trains mathematics and science teachers as well as lycée teachers in all subjects. Prospective teachers enter ENS after having completed a university degree program, either at the bachelor or master level. Teacher trainees specialize in one subject. Those who entered ENS with the bachelor will receive the Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Engseignement Moyen (CAEM). Those who entered with a masters will earn the Certifical d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement Secondaire (CAES). A teacher with the CAEM, who later receives a master's degree is then promoted to CAES. The training at ENS lasts one year, and for those specializing in English, consists of methodology courses and practical demonstration classes. As well as passing a final examination, candidates for the CAES and CAEM must submit a thesis of about twenty-five pages. After successful completion of the course, teachers undergo an additional year of training in a classroom. Each new teacher is evaluated by an officer of the Inspector of Government Teachers, as well as by the ENS. After a successful evaluation, the teacher is considered qualified. If the teacher fails the inspection, the year must be repeated until qualification occurs. Two such opportunities are afforded the neophyte teacher. In 1981, the English Department of ENS had forty trainees, with a staff of eight full-

time teachers, including two teachers assigned to ENS by the U.S. Peace Corps.

The English Teaching Advisers (CT/Anglais) have been attached to the Ministry of National Education under Britain's Technical Cooperation Program for ten years. This office provides the Ministry with information and feedback regarding teaching policies and advises the Ministry as to the continuation or modification of these policies. This office conducts classroom visitations and sponsors in-service seminars in cooperation with the Ministry. The CT/Anglais and his staff visit the 330 teachers of English scattered across the country in ninety-seven public schools. This amounts to covering more than 3,500 miles each year. Because of the great distances involved, and the amount of time needed to reach every teacher, the office has initiated a series of plenipotentiary meetings for teachers. This consists of a one-day, five-hour seminar, with a seminar in a different town each day. It is expected that these day-long seminars will eventually replace the annual summer in-service training courses. The plenipotentiary meetings provide special topics, and are designed to focus on specific points, so that teachers are able to utilize material from these sessions immediately. Many have centered around testing and evaluation techniques and procedures.

An additional responsibility of the office is to aid in the preparation and improvement of the Diplôme de Fin d'Etudes Moyennes (DFEM) national language examination, which is administered after the fourth year of English study. Selection committees of Senegalese teachers meet annually to prepare the examination. The office of the CT/Anglais aids the committee by providing an error-analysis of the previous year's examinations, and providing final determination of points of English grammar.

The United States Information Agency (formerly USICA) conducts cultural and informational programs to foster understanding of American society and life, institutions, and foreign policy. Through its American Cultural Center, it provides very popular English language programs geared to conversation, business English, special translation courses, and intensive reading practice. Four courses are offered throughout the year, each lasting ten weeks. Enroll-

ment for these courses averages 375 students. The day classes contain up to twenty students, while the evening classes contain up to thirty. Those enrolling in these classes are mainly from two backgrounds. Many are French expatriates who studied written English in school, but wish to obtain a spoken command of the language. Others are Senegalese functionaries, businessmen, students, soldiers, or private citizens. In addition to the above program, USIA offers specialized six-week tutorial English classes for Senegalese employees of American governmental organizations, embassy personnel, UNESCO leaders, Francophone labor leaders, and international executives. The teaching staff of the program includes eighteen teachers who average three to four years TEFL experience, and who possess either a doctorate or master's degree. The Senegalese government officially sanctions attendance by civil servants, functionaries, and officials who have a need to be proficient in English.

The Peace Corps has been heavily involved in teaching English in Senegal for the past eighteen years. Between forty and fifty volunteers were assigned to teaching positions throughout the country by the Ministry of National Education, but that number diminished to thirty during 1981, due to Senegal's own efforts to train and certify local teachers. Most volunteers teach either in the Collège d'Enseignement Général (CEG) or the lycées. They are also involved in teaching technical English at the governmental Hotel School, the Secretarial School, and the Technical Institute at the University of Dakar.

The Peace Corps, along with the British-Senegalese Institute are now assuming more responsibility for the professional preparation of Senegalese teachers in the outlying districts of the country. The actual classroom teaching by Peace Corps volunteers is being phased out. This policy began in July, 1981, and will be completed in 1984. All Peace Corps' efforts in TEFL will be in the area of teacher training. New PCVs who will be involved with the TEFL program must have had a minimum of one year of previous teaching experience. Each volunteer will become an adviser in the Peace Corps' regional centers in St. Louis, Thiès, Kaolack, and Ziguinchor. The Peace Corps maintains a close working relationship with the English Language Teaching Adviser's office (CT/Anglais) and the Ministry of National Education. Many volunteers parti-

cipate in the Ministry's annual in-service training courses.

The Senegalese government has an extensive English-by-radio service, which is produced with the cooperation of the British-Senegalese Institute. The program tapes are produced in London, and shipped to Dakar. The Institute then locally prepares supplementary material and exercises to be used in conjunction with the tapes and arranges with the two broadcasting networks in the country for scheduling of the programs. The lessons are broadcast over the national as well as the international networks. The national network includes regional broadcasts from Kaolack, on the central west coast, from Tambacounda, in the eastern reaches of the country, and from Ziguinchor, on the south coast in the Casamance region near Guinea-Bissau.

The series, called "Let's Speak English," is aired Monday through Friday at 7:30 in the evening. There are actually three different programs in the series. The first type is the actual language program. The second program, "Pedagogical Pop," uses popular music to teach certain vocabulary and grammar. This program is broadcast each Wednesday. The third program is entitled "Listeners' Letters," which is transmitted once each month. It contains letters written in English which are sent in by those people who are learning with the aid of the programs. Both an elementary and intermediate course are in progress at the same time. Each level is repeated twice a week, i.e., the Monday program is repeated on Tuesday, and the Thursday program is repeated on Friday. On Wednesday, there is a more advanced lesson which broadcasts specialized English programs. Such topics as maritime English, aviation English, and commercial English are treated.

Although these programs were originally intended for an adult audience, the Senegalese government has encouraged the use of these programs in the public school curriculum as well. Teachers are encouraged to intergrate the program material into their classroom work. The British-Senegalese Institute supplies the written material and unit exercises to the teachers at no cost. The staff further visits the various regions of the country to promote a more personal interest in the program, as well as to provide the teachers with techniques to better interface the pro-

grams with the class materials. These visits are announced in advance on the program, and are quite popular with the local population.

Adult functional literacy projects in the national languages are presently bogged down in governmental committees. Several basic areas of contention are preventing the program from reaching national approval. There is a lack of agreement among several factions over the use of the French alphabet, with its system of diacritic marks, syllabification, and punctuation. Many contest the use of the French system as being a carry-over from French colonial rule, which constitutes a continued political influence of France in Africa. It is further argued that the French writing system is alien to the phonotactics of African languages. A recent film in Wolof, entitled "Ceddo," with French spelling, did not pass the censors, under the argument that the gemmination of the d demonstrated continued French influence, and had no bearing on the spelling of Wolof. The film was seen in the Ivory Coast, Mail, and other African nations, but it was banned in Senegal. Former president Senghor, an avid francophile, forbade the use of an alphabetic notation developed for Wolof at the African Department of CLAD because he did not agree with the system's spelling and syllabification. Printers were ordered not to use the system. Other factions in the country want to return to the Arabic script, since it has been used to write Wolof for centuries.

A major problem is the choice of languages to be contained in the development of a national literacy program. Since Wolof has the most speakers, it was chosen for the first literacy program. This brought great arguments from other cultural groups condemning the choice as being an affront to their cultural heritage. Furthering the dilemma, no adult literacy program can become official until a presidential decree is issued. Such a decree must state policies on the alphabet, syllabification, and punctuation for each individual language.

Gabon

The Gabonese Republic is one of the wealthiest countries in Africa, due to its abundant resources of hardwood, minerals, and petroleum. Gabon is located in west-central Africa, on the Equator. It is

bordered on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Equatorial Guinea and Cameroon, and on the east and south by the Congo. Although Libreville is its capital and principal city, Gabon is best known for the hospital of Dr. Albert Schweitzer at Lambaréné. The country was formerly a part of French Equatorial Africa, and received its independence in 1960. Its area is little over 103,000 square miles, or about the size of Colorado. The estimated population in 1978 was 538,000. Almost all Gabonese are of Bantu origin. The main ethnic group is the Fang, followed by the Bapounou, M'Bete, Bakota, and Bateke. Fang is the lingua franca of much of the country. Approximately 50 percent of the population speak it as a first or second language. The official language remains French, although the government lists ten languages with forty dialects in the country.

Each group jealously guards its own language and cultural heritage; each group presents a rival factor to each other group. At an earlier time, the government transmitted radio programs in the major vernaculars, but due to the tribal factionism, discontinued these transmissions in favor of total French programming. Although the Gabonese government recognizes the various cultural entities, it does not appear to be establishing educational programs in these languages. Instead, a total French policy is being promulgated in an attempt to draw the various cultural factions together in the name of national unity. With this policy, no cultural group will be slighted in favor of any other group. This total French policy further implies that no adult literacy programs will be established in any of the indigenous languages. It is interesting to note that, since French is the predominant language of the larger cities, a variety of French, mixed with the vocabulary and structure of the vernacular languages, has emerged. This creolized form may well become a second lingua franca in years to come.

There are presently two language-related projects in progress in Gabon. The first is in connection with Projet ALAC, the Atlas Linguistique de l'Afrique Centrale, a large linguistic survey and atlas of Francophone Central Africa. Data are now being collected in Gabon, which will be incorporated into the project survey which will contain data from Congo, Zaire, Central African Republic, Rwanda, Burundi, Chad,

and Gabon. The second project is a pilot study for teaching French in the primary schools. The project had just completed the program sequence for the first grade. The second year sequence of the study was initiated in October, 1981.

Public school is free in Gabon, and is compulsory from the ages of six to sixteen. The French system of education is used. The country has 766 primary, 59 secondary, nine technical, and eight teacher training schools. Enrollment in the collèges varies between 300 and 600 pupils. The lycées vary between 200 and 2500 pupils. There is one university in the capital. English, French, German, Spanish, and Arabic are all offered in the public schools. French is used as the language of instruction throughout the school system. Gabon is one of the few countries which has not changed to the concept of initial education in the local languages. The CLAD series of French material was used for several years, and subsequently dropped as an inferior method. English and Spanish are introduced in the sixth year. English is continued for the next seven years. The English CLAD materials were also used and subsequently rejected. Most pupils choose to study English, although Spanish is very popular due to its use in Equatorial Guinea and the off-shore islands of that nation, which was a Spanish territory during colonial rule. Its popularity can also be attributed to the large volume of Latin American and Caribbean music which is heard on the radio. Most teachers have the Licence, some have the master's degree. Teachers of English are paid by the government to continue their studies overseas to obtain advanced degrees.

The largest teacher training program is located at the Université Omar Bongo. An extremely extensive and comprehensive three-year program in English is offered. The faculty in the English program totals fifteen, all of whom possess the doctorate. Most of the faculty are French, with several English and American teachers. The school year is from November 1 to June 15. Classes terminate at the end of May, and examinations are administered during the two weeks of June. Any student who fails the examinations in June may schedule make-up exams the following September. The grading system is extremely difficult. After the first year of instruction, eight students out of forty continued to the second year. Of the twenty-five students enrolled in the second year program, only two

continued to the last year.

The first year of study in the program contains courses in Linguistics, Phonetics, Anglophone Literature, English conversation, composition, and grammar, French conversation, as well as a third language chosen from among Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, German, or Arabic. Elective options are available in Sociology, Psychology, African Philosophy, and American Civilization. The second year contains courses in American English, Afro-American and Anglophone African Literature, and further coursework in English grammar, conversation, and composition, the third language, and other electives. The third year consists of specialization in literature, languages, or an interpreting program in commercial, diplomatic, or judicial English, as well as further courses in Linguistics. A thesis of fifty pages is required. This is difficult to complete due to a lack of reference materials and books in the country. Past records indicate that only two students out of twenty-five succeed with the completion of the thesis. Students who attend this excellent program are required to teach in Gabon for a minimum of ten years, either at the secondary or university level.

Another organization which trains teachers is the Institut National Pédagogique. This organization coordinates efforts with the Ministry of Education, as well as the U.S. Peace Corps. The Ministry employs a language pedagogical adviser, who, along with the Peace Corps, is responsible for both teacher training and classroom visitations and evaluation. The classroom visitations are performed twice a year. The visitation of the Peace Corps' representative and the Ministry's adviser are weighted equally in the evaluation of each teacher. Each year, one Peace Corps volunteer teaches at the Institut National Pédagogique as well as assists the Ministry in offering an in-service seminar. The INP is moving into the use of modern technology as well. Starting in the fall of 1981, it began using video tape recording equipment in its training classes. One of the tasks of the Institut is to train an adequate number of Gabonese teachers to teach English. Most English teachers in the country are expatriates who are contracted directly with the government, or who teach as part of the Peace Corps.

Most of the Peace Corps' English courses are conducted in the outlying areas of the country, along with their other projects in non-formal education. The English program is a four-year sequence using audio-lingual methodology. After the fourth year, the pupils take an oral examination of forty-five minutes in length. The test includes general questions as well as specific questions about the material from the textbook, L'Anglais en Afrique.[4]

Language training of the Peace Corps' volunteers is accomplished in Gabon. After their arrival, the volunteers are trained with intensive courses in both French and a local language. The intensive French courses are taught by ENS personnel or by English teachers from the public schools. At the same time, the volunteers receive theory and practice in teaching English as a foreign language, in an eleven-week course. The first six weeks include both theory and micro-teaching. The volunteers then attend a TEFL practice school for an additional five weeks. They eventually will teach eighteen to twenty hours of English during a five-day work week. Schools in the interior are in session six days a week, but Peace Corps' volunteers teach only five days under an agreement with the Gabonese government.

Burundi

The Republic of Burundi is a small country in east-central Africa, bordered on the west by Zaire, on the north by Rwanda, and on the east and south by Tanzania. During colonial rule, the country, along with Rwanda, was part of German East Africa, until the end of World War I, when it became a League of Nations trust territory which was mandated to Belgium, as part of the Belgian Congo. The territory was called Ruanda-Urundi. In 1946, it was made a United Nations trusteeship. Full independence for both Burundi and Rwanda was received in 1962. The area became mildly familiar to movie-goers as the place of action for the Bogart-Hepburn film, "The African Queen."

Burundi, with its capital at Bujumbura, on the shores of Lake Tanganyika, has an area of approximately 10,700 square miles, about the size of Delaware and New Hampshire combined. Its estimated population is 4,256,000. The region of Burundi and Rwanda form a homogenous cultural and ethnic continuum. The two

ethnic groups of both countries are the Tutsi and Hutu. A small minority of Twa pigmies also inhabit the area. Both the Tutsi and Hutu share a common Bantu language as well as culture. In Burundi, the language is called Kirundi, while in Rwanda, it is known as Kinyarwanda. The official languages of Burundi are French and Kirundi. Swahili is also used as a trade language.

It is difficult to obtain statistics on indigenous groupings, due to the mobility and mixing of the society. In addition, the Burundian government places importance on the homogenous nature of its society, and prefers to minimize any cultural differences. Any statistical information as to percentages of individual ethnic groups are not accepted as being reliable, due to the difficulty of classifying ethnic identity in the area. In Rwanda, the traditional monarchy was fixed and had few intermarriages. The contrary is true in Burundi, where many mixed marriages can be found. The Burundian government believes that many of their problems arose when the Belgians imposed their concept of aristocracy on the territory, as witnessed by their educating only the children of local chiefs. However, the unifying force in the territory was the language, as well as the migratory nature of the people. Not until the twentieth century did they become more sedentary in their way of life.

Education under colonial rule took several different shapes, depending on the ruling European country as well as policies installed by the United Nations. Before 1917, under German rule, only five or six government schools were established along with a few Catholic schools. These schools provided education only to the children of local chiefs. During Belgian rule, the colonial government allowed the German schools to continue. In 1928, the Belgian government signed an agreement with the White Fathers Mission, to allow this organization to run the school system. Almost all government schools were then closed. Moslems in the country were denied a European education unless they converted to Christianity. The White Fathers' schools trained clerks, administrators, and medical attendants in their center at Butaré, and carpenters and masons at Kitega. In 1955, the new Minister of Colonies wanted to initiate a program of secular education, but was met with strong opposition from the missionaries. However, a few governmental secular schools were opened. The Catholic Collège du Saint

Esprit was established in Bujumbura. Courses were taught exclusively in Flemish. Belgian interest in local education was minimal. There were no universities, only two or three secular secondary schools, and some seminary schools which locals attended to obtain an education. The Belgian foreign language program was limited to either French or Flemish. However, in the period approaching independence, the United Nations put pressure on the Belgians to introduce English into the curriculum. Such a program was established, and English was taught in the last six years of secondary schools.

After independence, educational policies remained in the state of hiatus until 1974, when certain reforms were initiated. These reforms affected language policies and language teaching as well as other facets of education. A policy called Kirundization et Ruralization was initiated, and is still in effect. Kirundi became the language of instruction for the first three years of primary school. The Kirundi alphabet, developed by missionaries as a means of teaching the Bible, was integrated into the school program, and taught immediately in the first grade. Because of the missionaries' programs, about 80 percent of the population could already read to some extent. French was not begun until the fourth year of primary school. From the seventh year, all education was in French. English study began in the second year of secondary school and continued until graduation. The Ruralization movement was initiated to prepare pupils to return to the rural life of their village, since only some could attain a secondary education due to the limited number of schools. In order to determine the best qualified, a national testing system called the Concours was organized. The examination is extremely difficult so that only the best pupils would be able to continue their education. The pupils who did not pass the examination returned to their villages with the basic skills they had acquired in primary school. These skills were to be put to use to aid the villagers in their daily life.

There are 613 primary and pre-primary schools, but only twenty-one secondary schools in the country. Public education is compulsory from the ages of six to fourteen, although only 20 to 25 percent of that age group actually attends school. Due to the agricultural way of life in the outlying districts, many

families choose to keep their children home to work instead of sending them to school. Many areas of this mountainous country have no school for the children to attend. These children must go to either a district center or a larger city for schooling. The school year is based on a trimester system, with thirty-six hours of classes per week. The classes are fifty minutes in length.

The 1974 educational reform brought about an innovative and significant change in Burundi's language policy. By presidential decree the country is presently on the road to becoming tri-lingual in Kirundi, French, and English. During the Belgian colonial period, trade from the region was centered on the Belgian Congo, to the west. The Belgians built a large port facility on Lake Tanganyika, with total orientation to the Congo, and the French/Belgian sphere of influence. The Burundian government wants to turn away from that sphere, since most of its trade and commerce comes from the east coast of the continent, with Tanzania and Kenya, which are Anglophone countries. Strengthening ties with Anglophone East Africa is seen as the way of Burundi's future. As a result of the presidential decree, all pupils are required to study English. Every school and department at the university has a requirement of English for graduation. The popularity of English courses is attested by the fact that, although French is still used at the university as the primary language of instruction, there are now more English majors than French majors.

Primary school commences with the three years of Kirundi. Some oral French is introduced in the third year through the use of audio-lingual methodology, with no attempt to teach writing until the fifth year. Much of the methodology centers around simple descriptions of photographs and drawings. During the sixth year, all pupils are required to take the placement examinations for secondary school. Depending on their test results, the pupils are streamed into specialized secondary schooling. The pupils with the highest scores are directed into Lettres Modernes, the second highest group is streamed into the sciences, the third group into the Ecole Normale, and the lowest group into technical schools. The Ecole Normale is an important source for primary school teachers. After secondary school, another examination is administered to determine entrance into the university. There is no choice

of study for the university students. They, too, are directed into a major study area according to their test results. The most successful are placed in either the Faculty of Economics or the Faculty of Medicine. Those who attended the Ecole Normale continue at that school's upper division and receive further training for careers in the public school system. Depending on the length of their training, they will teach either primary or secondary school. Those who teach secondary school do so for three years. They may then choose to enter the university to continue their professional training.

All language training at the university is done in the Faculty of Letters, although the methodology courses are taught at the Education School of the university. The professors of these departments also function as pedagogical inspectors for the government in addition to their teaching classes. The university is the degree giving and teacher licensing authority in the country. After completing this four-year program, graduates become either teachers of Methodology and Psychology of Education at the Ecole Normale or at the Ecole Moyenne Pédagogique, another institution which trains primary school teachers, or they may become government inspectors for the Ministry of Education. In spite of the various organizations responsible for teacher training, there is a serious shortage of qualified teachers in the country.[5]

The Université du Burundi also offers a program in linguistics and literature with a wide range of courses. These courses are offered through the Departments of French, English, and Kirundi, all of which are within the Faculty of Letters. There is no degree in linguistics, but a major concentration in that area may be pursued through the three language departments. The university is also involved in Projet ALAC, the linguistic atlas of Francophone Central Africa, which was initiated in 1979. Linguistic data indicate that there are few differences in regional dialects, although the age of the informants in the study appears to be an important variable in that the older informants do not have a preponderance of French or English words in their vocabulary. The older informants also retain some vocabulary which the younger informants do not use. The influence of radio is presumed to have occasioned that phenomenon.

The English program in the public schools is the responsibility of the Bureau d'Etude des Programmes de l'Enseignement Secondaire (BEPES), of the Ministry of Education. It establishes methodology, develops textbooks and supplementary material, and provides visual aids and tape recordings for laboratory and classroom use. It also schedules yearly seminars in the teaching of English. Before that office was established, textbooks produced in other countries were used. In the mid-seventies, BEPES commissioned the writing of a new text which would adapt the study of English to local requirements. This task fell on Belgian teachers of English who were in the country at that time. The result was a textbook entitled English Skills for Africa, with books for the first and second year.[6] The text was first used in 1978, but was found to be lacking in several respects. Most importantly, the English was English as perceived by Belgian speakers. As in the CLAD materials, no native speakers of English were consulted. The stated methodology was audio-lingual, with writing postponed for the first three months of the course. However, the pupils were required to learn the IPA phonetic alphabet and be able to transcribe the oral pronunciation drills. The vocabulary used in the pattern drills was not used in the basic dialogs. Complaints from teachers caused BEPES to institute a mini-conference in May, 1980, for the purpose of obtaining feedback from teachers as to whether to improve the present text, or to search for a new text. In the meantime, the old text would be reorganized in terms of the sequencing of materials, including basic vocabulary and structures. In April, 1981, a BEPES four-day national seminar on the teaching of English approached the question again, as well as delineated learning objectives for the program and established evaluation procedures for the different types of secondary schools. Although the old text is still in use, BEPES has initiated inquires into other textbook possibilities.

As well as being taught in the public schools, and at the university, there are some other sources of English classes. The Bible School at Mweya, near Gitega, has had a very successful program for years, and has produced some of the best English speakers in the country. The Anglican Community Center in Bujumbura offers evening classes and certain banks and the UNDP offer specialized classes for their employees. Although the American Cultural Center maintains a

library and film center, it offers no classes in English, as a result of the present government's policy of limiting Burundian citizens' contacts with foreigners. The largest source of English courses is the national radio network, the Deuxième Chaine. Along with courses in English, the network offers special in-service programs for teachers. This is done basically for those teachers in the outlying areas of the country.

Burundi, like Senegal, has two radio networks. One broadcasts exclusively in Kirundi, the other broadcasts in French, Swahili, and English. It also transmits in-service programs to teachers. The programs are proportioned 70 percent French, 25 percent Swahili, and 5 percent English. The English course is integrated into the public school program and has a large adult following as well. The basic format of the program is the BBC series, "English by Radio," which is transmitted daily over a four-month period. The original materials from the BBC program are rewritten locally before transmission. A unique feature of the Burundi program is that two distinct series are written, one for Kirundi speakers, the other for Swahili speakers. The BBC program is received in tape form and is integrated with other BBC topical tapes as well as with tapes from the Voice of America, which are supplied by the American Cultural Center. In addition to the language course, news in English is transmitted twice a week as a regular feature. This is done not only to provide learner practice in listening comprehension, but also to help local speakers of English keep informed of the events within the country. An additional English program is a record request show, which attracts many listeners in western Zaire, Rwanda, Uganda, and Tanzania, as well as local listeners in Burundi.

There is a large and popular adult functional literacy program in the country, which is conducted by the Political Party of Burundi. Unfortunately, it is not yet an official governmental program due to cost priorities in other areas. Many of the people interested in becoming literate form groups on their own initiative and recruit their own teacher. Most adults have had some reading instruction through missionary groups, and therefore are prone to continue their literacy training.

The Political Party of Burundi accepted responsibility of the literacy program in 1977. In August, 1980, the Party sponsored a seminar in adult functional literacy in cooperation with the Ministry of National Education and UNESCO to aid in the training of teachers in literacy techniques. The seminar lasted three weeks and brought methodological training to the country for the first time. Several literacy centers have been established in the outlying areas. The Gagara Center was started in 1977. At first, it was attended only by women, but their success prompted the men to attend as well. Classes meet three times a week for two hours, and are divided into elementary and advanced levels. One hour is spent teaching reading and writing, while arithmetic is taught in the second hour.

Material for the literacy program as well as teacher manuals are developed at the Ministry of National Education. Each literacy unit begins with a theme, such as "John is going to the well." Each unit brings focus on key words from the theme. These words are divided into syllables to teach the correlation between sound and written symbol. Writing is taught first in cursive form, then in printed form. One problem area which hampers all learning is the severe shortage of paper in the country. UNESCO was approached to provide money for paper and for funding the entire literacy program, but will not provide funds until the program has been in operation and has a record of success.

Rwanda

The Republic of Rwanda constitutes the other half of the former Belgian-mandated territory of Ruanda-Urundi. It received its independence in 1962, along with neighboring Burundi, to the south. Other bordering countries are Zaire and Uganda to the west, and Tanzania to the east. Rwanda has a total of approximately 10,100 square miles, which is similar in size to Vermont. The estimated population in 1978 was 4,819,000, making it Africa's most densly populated nation. The capital city is Kigali. The ethnic composition of Rwanda, like Burundi, consists of the Hutu and Tutsi, with the Twa minority. The official languages are Kinyarwanda and French. Swahili is used widely as a trade language.

As well as containing a similar linguistic and cultural composition, both Rwanda and Burundi have executed similar educational reforms. The Rwandan counterparts are called Kinyarwandization et Ruralization, and follow the same philosophy as described earlier under Burundi. Other major reforms include the restructuring of secondary education to include thirteen different major subjects, as well as a large concentration of courses in the English language. These reforms commenced in September, 1981.

The Law of August, 1966 made primary school free and compulsory from seven to eleven years of age, although the schools provide for only 55 percent of all eligible children. At the beginning of the first year, the school day lasts only two hours. By the fourth year, the children are in class for six hours per day. The language of instruction for the first three years in Kinyarwanda. These first years are used to teach reading and writing of the language. No grammar is taught until the sixth year of instruction. All textbooks and materials are produced locally by the staff of the Bureau Pédagogique du Primaire. This staff of five produces a series of three books called Gusoma, or Writing, along with appropriate teacher manuals for each textbook level. The staff also produced a number of short readers which are utilized after the completion of the Gusoma series. Since reading and writing are taught at the same time, a suitable text which would teach the two skills had to be developed. An additional constraint placed on materials development is the lack of paper in Rwanda. The Gusoma texts teach reading and writing on a binary system of pagination. The left page presents a reading unit, while the right page presents a related unit of writing. Pictures and drawings are used to illustrate vocabulary on the left page. Each pair of pages concentrates on a consonant or vowel and the letters which represent them. The particular letters of study are printed in red. The next step involves combining letters into words, and finally words into sentences. Writing is taught in the same sequence on the right page.

French is introduced in the fourth year of primary school with eight hours of instruction per week. Classes are fifty minutes in length. After five years, it is reduced to five and one half hours per

week. In the seventh and eighth years, the scheduling of French is modified to two classes per day, each class lasting twenty-five minutes, for a total of five hours of instruction per week. Both Swahili and English are introduced during the first year of secondary school.

Recently implemented educational reforms in Rwanda include a system of channeling incoming secondary school pupils to thirteen different types of programs. As in Burundi, pupils must pass entrance examinations for secondary school. Although the pupils have a certain amount of program choice, the government reserves the right to render final decision for each pupil. Those pupils who graduate primary school, but fail the secondary school entrance exams, or those who do not wish to continue to secondary school, return to their villages under the governmental policy of Ruralization. The programs available to secondary pupils as of September, 1981, are in Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences, Teacher Training, the Sciences, Letters, Social Services, Economics and Commerce, Law and Administration, Hospital Services, Nutrition and Dietetics, Fine Arts, Physical Education, and Trade School. The new emphasis placed on an extensive English program is included in the reform. However, only those schools offering programs in the Sciences, Letters, Economics, Law, Hospital Services, and certain sections of the trade school program will offer courses in English. It is these programs which prepare pupils for advanced studies. These particular programs require six years of secondary school for graduation. The other programs require four to five years.

The English program is the responsibility of the Section Anglaise of the Bureau Pédagogique. This department is also a staff of only five, including one American Peace Corps volunteer. The Section is responsible for curriculum development, teacher training, classroom observations and professional evaluation, as well as for the development of the national English proficiency examinations. Teacher seminars, which were initiated in 1978, are designed to demonstrate how teachers can develop and produce their own materials in spite of the paper shortage. All teachers of English are trained in Rwanda. Except for several members of the Bureau Pédagogique, none has experienced study in an English-speaking

country. The Section has also been developing a text for the first two years of the program. The text is based on the material from English for French-Speaking Africa[2] but is being adapted to the Rwanda culture, as well as to a methodology which emphasizes the spoken language. Reading and writing are introduced after the first two months of instruction. The English program lasts through the five to six years of secondary school, when the national English proficiency examinations are administered.

The English Teaching Institute, which is located at the American Cultural Center in Kigali, conducts a series of courses which are well attended. These courses are open to the public and include four elementary, three intermediate, and three advanced classes. In the summer of 1981, 170 students of diverse backgrounds were registered. Special language courses are provided to Rwandan government officials by the Institute, including an advanced course in Diplomatic English. Classes are held on a three-hour-per-week basis. Classes convene in the late afternoon or immediately after the work-day ends. This is due to the latitude at which Kigali is located. Darkness approaches very quickly, and many students live outside the city, where there is no street illumination. This makes driving into the surrounding mountains extremely dangerous after dark.

Most students are enrolled in the elementary level. Each class contains between fourteen and twenty students. The intermediate classes average twelve students, while the advanced classes average nine students. The staff at the Institute includes nine teachers with various degrees in EFL including four Rwandans who have had EFL training in the United States or United Kingdom. The textbook used is English for International Communication.[7] It contains ninety-six hours of instruction to which local supplementary materials are added. All courses at the Institute emphasize American English. The Institute also sponsors an English Club which meets twice a week. Its main activities are debates and theatrical performances.

Language-by-radio programs in Rwanda are in their infancy, but because of the new education reforms, will be utilized with more regularity. The pricetags on radios have been reduced and import duties and taxes

for radios have been removed. In addition, the government is providing radios free of charge to each outlying village to provide information, education, and entertainment to the rural population. Such a governmental program is functioning with great success in Upper Volta.[8] Although Radio Rwanda transmits programs in Kinyarwanda, Swahili, and French, fewer programs in French are being scheduled. Education programs are broadcast to the public schools each Wednesday and Friday. The programs are integrated into the classroom instruction complete with follow-up time in class after their presentation. Along with these programs, a series of thirty minute methodological programs are broadcast for teacher in-service training. Although no regular broadcasts of English are presently under way, the Section Anglaise of the Bureau Pédagogique is preparing a series of programs which will be transmitted to the public schools. The program will remain in the planning stage until Radio Rwanda completes its changeover from transmissions in the tropical shortwave band to the VHF frequency spectrum. This is due to extremely poor radio conditions found near the Equator. All shortwave frequencies are totally useless for many hours of the daylight period. Because of this, Radio Rwanda suspends transmissions between 8 a.m. and 11 a.m. each day. This places a premium on available air time and priorities on types of programs. Educational programming will be expanded after the changeover.

An excellent and extensive adult functional literacy program has been active in Rwanda since 1974. The program is sponsored by the Protestant Church at their Rafiki Club in Kigali. The club offers evening classes in French, English, Swahili, arithmetic, electricity, and the Kinyarwanda literacy program. It edits and publishes its own newspaper entitled Rafiki Journal, as well as publishing a series of small books, all of which are in the national language.

The pedagogical materials used in the functional literacy program have as their base the statistical frequency of occurrence of syllable-types in Kinyarwanda. Research in Kinyarwandan syllable types and a resulting methodology based on that research is unique in such programs. A word count of 6,000 was undertaken to establish that thirty-seven syllable types will account for "more than 99 percent of written Kinyarwanda."[9] Proponents of this methodology claim

it to be extremely economical. They have ascertained that an adult can learn the Kinyarwandan alphabet and syllables in 100 hours time, and complete their literacy program in 200 hours.[10] Courses run four hours per week for men, and two hours per week for women. Twelve teachers participate in the program.

The textbooks contain twenty-three lessons and are written in two parts. The first part teaches the basic reading and writing of letters, syllables, and words, while the second part uses dialogs and conversations with themes of everyday life as their entry point. Each unit concentrates on two key sentences from the dialog as well as key vocabulary which is related to the dialog topic. For example, in the unit entitled Barubaka, "Construction," the key vocabulary list contains common words used in conjunction with building. The unit also contains short supplementary material which is related to the theme, i.e., "Put electricity in your home," and "Building a house for your parents." Results of the program indicate that adults have no difficulty in learning how to write Kinyarwanda, but do exhibit considerable difficulty in reading different type faces, since the program teaches both printing and cursive forms of writing.

Notes

[1]F. Zobel, B. Kane, et al., Today's English, Paris: Hatier, 1976.

[2]David Mills, Boniface Zodéougan, et al., English for French-Speaking Africa, Paris: Libraire Armand Colin, 1976.

[3]Decree number 66-070.

[4]N. Bouet and S. Bouet, L'Anglais en Afrique, Paris: Hatier, 1972.

[5]Mainly because so many qualifed teachers were killed in the civil war massacres of 1972-73.

[6]English Skills for Africa, Bujumbura: BEPES, Ministre de l'Education Nationale, 1978.

[7]Richard C. Yorkey, et al., English for International Communications, New York: American Book Company, 1978.

[8]For a complete description of the Upper Volta radio project, see Edmun B. Richmond, "Radio Rurale: Education and Information for an Illiterate People," NALLD Journal of Technology and Mediation, 15,1 (1980), pp. 35-37.

[9]Gilles-Marius Dion, Enquête et Etude pour une Méthode d' Apprentissage de la Lecture et de l'Ecriture de Kinyarwanda par des Adultes Rwandais, Kigali: Les Editions Rafiki, 1980.

[10]Interview with Gilles-Marius Dion, Kigali, July, 1981.

CHAPTER III

THE ANGLOPHONE COUNTRIES

Kenya

The Republic of Kenya is located on the east coast of the continent, and is bounded by the Indian Ocean and Somalia to the east, by Tanzania to the south, by Uganda to the west, and by Ethiopia and Sudan to the north. Kenya has an area of 225,000 square miles, about the size of New Mexico and Nevada combined. The population was estimated at 15,322,000 in 1979. Kenya was part of British East Africa, along with Uganda and Tanganyika. Independence was received from Great Britain in 1963. Today's Kenya consists of eight provinces, i.e., Nairobi, Western, Nyanza, Rift Valley, Eastern, Central, Northeastern, and Coast. These provinces are further divided into forty-one districts and 200 divisions. The government recognizes more than forty separate linguistic and cultural entities. The largest ethnic group is the Kikuyu, followed by the Luo, Luyia, Kamba, Gusii, and Meru. The two major language families in the country are the Bantu and Chari-Nile. The official language is English, while Swahili is the national language. Other languages are classified as regional languages. Education in the country is made complicated because of so many tribal languages.

Primary education is free, and lasts for seven years. Children enter school at the age of six. After completion, children take the Certificate of Primary Education examination. Secondary education lasts six years. All governmental secondary schools charge a tuition. After the second year, pupils who choose not to continue their schooling may leave after successful completion of the Kenya Junior Certificate of Secondary Education examination. At the end of the fourth year, they may take the East African Certificate of Education 'O' Level examination. Those who succeed on this examination are eligible to enter the final two years, which will lead to the East African Advanced Certificate of Education 'A' Level examination, and subsequent university study.

Kenya also has a tertiary level of public school education. Those pupils who leave school after their 'O' Level exams, can enter one of the Primary Teacher

Colleges or Kenya Science Teachers' College, all of which train teachers for secondary school positions. They may also choose to enter Egerton College, which trains agricultural teachers, or Nairobi and Mombassa Polytechnics, which offer a variety of courses. After completion of a three-year program at these institutions, these so-called SI teachers may obtain positions as science or agriculture specialists. In addition to the public school sector, Kenya has a rural and village-level program known as the Harambee, or self-help sector. These private schools, colleges, and village polytechnics function wholly on the basis of voluntary contributions and support. The program follows the governmental program through the 'O' Level of education.

The language of instruction for the first three years of primary school is a local language. English is introduced in the first year, and becomes the only language of instruction by the fourth year. In spite of this, the ability of the pupils to communicate in English, as well as the ratio of English usage to the local language usage varies considerably. At one end of the scale is the pupil who attends fourth grade in a high prestige primary school in Nairobi, and already has native speaker competence and is literate in English. At the other end of the continuum is the pupil who lives in a remote rural setting, attends the fourth grade of a poorly equipped and poorly staffed school, and is most likely illiterate in his native language or Swahili, much less in English. The rural schools, especially those in monolingual areas, tend to rely on the use of the mother tongue for a longer period of time. In reality, this tendency continues into adult life and adult use of English. Actual use of the language is limited to contact with foreigners, or to the special areas of the educational system or civil service. In staff rooms and business offices, the language of conversation is just as likely to be Swahili, Kikuyu, or some other local tongue. Paper work in these institutions will be in English or Swahili, since most official forms are printed in both languages, but conversation about the forms may often be in an indigenous language.

Since English is the official language of the country and considered the means of attaining Kenyan national unity, as well as being the mark of an educated Kenyan, the Kenya Institute of Education has

launched a massive campaign to ameliorate the acquisition of English in the public schools. The KIE, established in 1966, is responsible for all public school curriculum development. All texts and materials are written and produced locally, and are reevaluated, modified, and updated every few years, by a panel of public school and university teachers, government inspectors, and the staff of KIE. The Primary Education Section is currently engaged in a new English language program in the lower primary grades one through three. A pilot study with new material was initiated in fifty lower primary schools. The project involved classroom testing of newly developed texts, twelve supplementary readers, and teacher manuals. Both spoken and written English are taught.[1] The reading texts make ample use of a system of color-coding to teach graphic fit, consonant clusters, diphthongs, initial and final consonants. All initial consonants are coded red, vowels are underlined and coded black, and final consonants are coded blue. The book consists of many games, such as "Find the missing letters," "Find the end of the word," and "Find the end of the sentence." Included in the study is a teacher questionnaire about the new text and its comparison to the older text. KIE has also developed a new text for the upper primary grades four to seven, which is now being evaluated. These will be evaluated against the older text, which has been in use since 1970.[2] KIE also offers a remedial English speech course for Kenyan teachers. This program consists of three 5 inch by 900 foot reel-to-reel tape recordings and accompanying workbook, which are used to aid the teacher to acquire a more standardized English pronunciation and at the same time to remove any strong phonological influences from regional languages.

A unique and ambitious language-by-radio program to teach English in the primary schools is currently under development at the KIE facilities in Nairobi. The Radio Language Arts Project is a joint USAID/ Ministry of Basic Education program for the first three years of public education, and will utilize the broadcasting facilities of the Voice of Kenya, the national radio service. The objectives of this endeavor are to improve existing English-by-radio programs; to assume responsibility for teaching comprehension of spoken and written English; as well as to assume responsibility for curriculum development of English programs for the first three years in rural primary schools.

The project consists of the design, implementation, and evaluation of tape-recorded broadcasts and related classroom materials, as well as providing in-service teacher training in the use of these broadcasts. An important aspect of the program is the continuing system of feedback obtained from the rural schools to evaluate not only the pupils' progress, but also the materials as they relate to this progress. In this way, frequent and immediate adaptations and modifications of the radio programs and classroom materials can be accomplished. The project is scheduled to terminate in November, 1984.

The programs and materials are being developed by a staff of twelve full-time, and approximately thirty part-time specialists. Four of the staff are Americans, the rest are Kenyans. Basic materials for the pilot study were produced in 1981. These included the production of the actual tape recordings, classroom follow-up materials, and teacher manuals. The pilot study was conducted in a small number of primary schools located in seven outlying districts. The recordings and materials were first evaluated in the field, by taking them to the pilot study schools, using them in a classroom situation, and examining the results. Neutral field observers were provided by the Ministry of Basic Education, and worked in cooperation with the RLA project. After each day's observations, reports were sent back to the RLA staff for evaluation and possible modification of the materials.

The actual airing of the pilot program commenced in January, 1982, with the broadcasts of programs for the first grade. The programs are thirty minutes in length, and are broadcast for 165 days of the school year. The program format is based on a past USAID mathematics program used in Nicaragua, from 1973 to 1978.[3] The thirty-minute broadcast is divided into mini-segments which last from thirty seconds to three minutes. The program utilizes two main characters, four animal characters, and is complete with music and sound effects. Four weeks are required from the writing and production of the tape script to the actual airing of the tape in its final form. To be included with the introduction of new material is the re-entry of previously learned material. Programs for the second grade are now in production and will be aired in 1983. Programs for the third grade will be aired in 1984. It is hoped that by the end of 1984, the

Kenyan government will have gathered enough data to determine if this language-by-radio program provides a pedagogically sound and cost-effective approach to the teaching of the official language to a diverse and scattered population.

An essential feature of this program is to teach an English based on a Kenyan standard. All speakers on the tape recordings are Kenyan speakers of English. No native English speakers are used on the tapes. Interviews with members of the Ministry have emphasized the desire to promulgate a Kenyan Standard English, as opposed to a British or American standard. The Kenyans believe that the concept of a Kenyan standard of English has been in the developing stage since British colonial times, and should now be recognized as a standard in its own right. Such a concept, it is believed, will aid in the process of national pride and unity.

Advanced training and certification of language teachers in Kenya is the responsibility of Kenyatta University College, in Nairobi. After successfully completing a three-year program of studies at KUC, the teacher is certified at the secondary school level. The Department of Languages and Linguistics at KUC interfaces its program with that of the Department of Education, to offer a non-degree Diploma in Education, which is awarded after two years, and a Bachelor of Education degree after completion of the full three-year sequence. In addition, a Master of Education degree, which lasts an additional two years, is available with either a specialization in Primary Curriculum Development or in Languages and Communications Technology. Students specialize in either English, Swahili, or French, and register for two courses per quarter in those areas, plus one course in the Education Department. The coursework continues for three quarters per year. The fourth quarter is spent in supervised student teaching in a public school.

Offerings within the programs include basic and advanced courses in Descriptive and Transformational Linguistics, Phonetics, African Linguistics, with more specialized courses in National and Educational Language Policies, Sociolinguistics, Language Acquisition, and Applied Linguistics of English, Swahili, and French. Courses within the framework of

the Education Department include Primary and Pre-Primary Education, Secondary Education, Language Teaching Methodology, Stylistics, and Educational Measurements and Evaluation. Both of the degree series and the diploma series have additional specialized courses in their programs.

The Department of Languages and Linguistics has a twenty-four position audio-active language laboratory, which was donated by the French government. Future plans include the construction of a radio recording studio to be used in conjunction with the laboratory. The present lab was originally intended to be used with the French language program, but a more pressing use has emerged. Concentrated phonological practice by English majors is viewed as the primary mission of the lab. This is due to the immense linguistic diversity of the students and the related varieties of English pronunciation which they bring into the program. Most students are of a Bantu background. The largest number speak Kikuyu as their native language, with Luo speakers being the second largest group. Smaller linguistic groups are also registered in the program. This accounts for a tremendous amount of linguistic interference in structure and pronunciation. It is for this reason that the department has developed a series of pronunciation tapes geared to the native language of the student. The development of these tapes is considered a part of the students' training. Students are required to analyze the phonological system of their native language and dialect, then to analyze their pronunciation of English. After accomplishing these tasks, they are sent out into the field to compile additional data on Kenyan languages. The tape recordings developed by the department are based on these analyses. Unfortunately, no tapes have been developed for Somali speakers. Although there is a large Somali population in northern and eastern Kenya, none has been registered in the KUC language program. The survey shows that intelligibility of Kenyan English is a severe problem, since English varies with the first language of the speaker, as well as within the district it is spoken. In some cases, it varies within villages, especially in an area with a very dense population. In the district of Meru, some speakers' phonemic inventory contains /š/, while other speakers have /č/ in its place. There is, however, a tendency of dialect convergence on the district center town,

as well as a larger national convergence on Nairobi.[4] The vowel system appears to be converging on the British Received Pronunciation model. At KUC, the British standard RP is the dialect that is taught.

A massive adult functional literacy program is in full swing. In 1976, adult literacy averaged 66 percent for males and 31 percent for females. In December, 1978, President Daniel arap Moi announced the need for a mass literacy program within five years. This program, along with programs to eliminate poverty and disease, was initiated during the following year. The Ministry of Social Services has the responsibility of developing national adult literacy programs, and has complete governmental support. The Ministry presently has working programs in seventeen local languages, including Boran, Gusii, Kalejin, Kiembu, Kikamba, Kikuyu, Kimeru, Kiswahili, Kuria, Luo, Luyia, Maasai, Pokot, Rendille, Somali, Teso, and Turkana. The Swahili program is further divided into the rural and urban varieties. In spite of the forty officially recognized languages, several are combined within the literacy program materials. This is due to their structural similarities.

Because of the country's size and segmentation into provinces, districts, and divisions, the literacy program requires commensurate administrative staffing and teaching personnel. Staffing is located at the provincial, district, and village levels. In each of the forty-one districts, there are two officers in charge of the divisions within the district. Each division has one literacy supervisor in charge of the village field teachers in that division. When the literacy program was initiated in 1979, field teachers were trained in literacy techniques for one to two years, depending on previous experience. Many of those who entered the training program were recent high school graduates who were employed as part of the governmental program to eliminate poverty. Unfortunately, many of those teenagers did not accept the responsibility of the jobs, and were terminated from the program. Present policy dictates a two-week training period in adult classroom psychology and literacy teaching techniques before teachers can enter the field program. Continuing in-service training is provided through the university in a two-year program. Since the expense to return teachers from the field to attend classes is exorbitant, the Ministry and the

university provide the courses over the radio in cooperation with the Voice of Kenya. Three courses in adult education, literacy techniques, and curriculum development are offered in a forty-five minute program per subject, per day.

The literacy classes are very popular. Class size ranges from thirteen to eighty. In such large classroom situations, many part-time and volunteer teachers are utilized. Part-time teachers work two hours a day, while 10,000 self-help teachers provide their services with no pay. The program is sequenced into three stages. Literacy Stage One consists of two books in local languages which teach elementary reading, writing, and numeracy. These materials utilize pictures and drawings to teach individual words, which are then broken down to teach individual syllables. Literacy Stage Two is a bridge between Stage One and Stage Three. It contains follow-up materials at a more advanced level. It also prepares the learner for Post-Literacy Stage Three. This stage teaches literacy only in Swahili and English. The introduction to these two languages as soon as possible is considered of major importance, due to the expense of developing literacy materials in so many languages. It is also considered an important way of enhancing the concept of national unity to the peoples of rural Kenya. The most difficult problem is the transition from the local language to English. This is due not only to interference from linguistic features, but interference from cultural differences as well. However, there is a great deal of interest in literacy in English at the rural level. Although Swahili remains the most important language of the bush, it is realized that English is a necessity in the urban centers. English remains the language of all examinations and the key to a better job in the modern sector of Kenyan society.

Liberia

The Republic of Liberia is located on the west coast of the continent. It is bordered on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Sierra Leone and Guinea, and on the northeast by the Ivory Coast. The country totals 43,000 square miles, about the size of Ohio. Its estimated 1978 population was 1,742,000. Liberia is Africa's oldest independent republic. It became a colony for freed American black

slaves who were returned to Africa, under a program by the American Colonization Society. The first ex-slaves reached the area in 1822, and established a colony at Providence Island, the present site of Monrovia, the capital city. The Liberian government lists sixteen indigenous languages. The largest ethnic group is the Kpelle, followed by the Bassa, Dan, Grebo, Kru, and Mano. Languages are classified as belonging to the West Atlantic and Maninka branches of the Niger-Congo family. English is the only official language, and operates as a lingua franca, as well. English is the first language of the settler descendents, and is therefore regarded as an indigenous language in their case.

Education in Liberia is free, and is compulsory from the age of six. The Four-Year Development Program of 1967 was established to increase the number of primary and secondary school pupils over that period of time. By 1974, however, only 54 percent of the children between six and twelve years, and only 15 percent of those between the ages of thirteen and eighteen were actually enrolled. As in other developing nations, many children of school age are kept home for responsibilities within the family. Since the 1980 coup, educational reforms and curriculum changes are expected to bolster these figures. The government-sponsored National Language Program intends to introduce programs in adult education in the local languages, as well as to introduce the local languages before English, in the primary schools. It also plans to coordinate these programs with the linguistic research in indigenous languages presently under way in the country.

At this writing, English is the only language of instruction in the public schools, and is introduced from the first to the sixth grade, depending on the region of the country. In urban areas, it is introduced earlier than in rural areas. There, it is taught as a foreign language, utilizing the native language of the region for classroom explanations and directions. Some children already speak English when they enter public school. These are children of educated Liberians who realize the importance of English, and begin early to use it with their children. French is taught as a foreign language in secondary schools.

Curriculum revisions are in progress due to interference problems with Waterside English, the local

partially decreolized version of American Black English, which is spoken extensively as a lingua franca, and which is considered by many Liberians to be substandard.[5] Revised curriculum materials are being developed to teach a standard Liberian English, such as that employed in broadcasting and official functions. In the past, little emphasis was placed on reading comprehension, but the new curriculum revisions will change this policy. A system of teaching phonics will be employed before introducing reading and writing. It is hoped that this sequence of materials will help eliminate graphemic interference caused by the structure of Waterside English. Although American textbooks are presently in use, future plans include the development of Liberian texts which focus on Liberian language problems and culture.

The severest problem in the country is the shortage of qualified teachers. The Daily Observer, a Monrovia newspaper, carried the headline, "60% of Teachers are Untrained," in the edition of July 23, 1981. These were the remarks of Theodora Ward Jackson, Dean of the V.S. Tubman Teachers College at the University of Liberia. Dean Jackson presented a paper at the National Conference on Education, in Monrovia, and cited poor salaries, improper placement of trained teachers, and recruitment/retention of qualified teachers as being paramount problems which had to be rectified.[6]

The Ministry of Education offers two non-degree programs in rural education and training at their center in Zorzor. These "Self-Help" schools in the bush, along with the Community School Program transform rural schools into community classes in which literacy and local arts and crafts are taught. Cuttington University College offers teacher training courses in primary and secondary education. The V.S. Tubman Teachers College offers a two-year certificate program as well as a four-year degree program. These institutions, however, are not graduating enough teachers to stop the shortage. As a means to combat the problem, the government has instituted a series of crash teacher programs and workshops, which will award teaching certificates after three years to trainees who hold a high school diploma, and award advanced certificates to those who attend advanced workshops. In-service scholarships will be provided by the government to relieve some of the financial

strain of the trainees.

There are discussions to initiate an education-by-radio service, since most households are equipped with a transistor radio. At present there are no educational programs on radio, although the one television channel in Monrovia does carry some educational programming. However, the segment of the population which most needs educational programming does not own television receivers. Some progress in the area could be investigated through the Mano River Union, a group of three countries, which includes Liberia, Guinea, and Sierra Leone. Within this organization is the CIB, or Curriculum Planning, Materials Production, and Book Development group, which is striving to solve mutual problems in language teaching. The Union has been in operation for five years, and concentrates its activities in the areas of education, forestry, rural development, and telecommunications.

Literacy programs in Liberia are being developed by the Liberian Language Institute. This organization came to Liberia in 1969, under the auspices of the Lutheran Church, to begin Bible translations into the local languages. It is now involved in developing literacy programs in Gola, Grebo, Kissi, Kpelle, Kra, Kru, Vai, and Vandi. The program in Grebo is further divided into coastal and interior varieties of that language. Each language program is developed by a team of five. The orthography presently used is the old Vai syllabary, but the Institute is attempting to replace it with IPA symbols. Because of this, not much printing of materials has actually taken place, due to a limited number of IPA type fonts for typewriters.

The Gambia

The smallest independent nation on the African continent is The Gambia, an enclave within the geographical confines of Senegal. The borders of this country extend from the mouth of the River Gambia, on the Atlantic Ocean, some 200 miles up river. The width of the country varies from thirty miles at the mouth of the river, to seven miles in the interior. Total area is 41,000 square miles, twice the size of Delaware. The population is placed at 585,000 in a 1979 estimate. The Gambia became independent in 1965,

and became a republic in 1970. The capital of Banjul is located on an island near the Atlantic coast. The main ethnic group is the Mandingo, which comprises about 50 percent of the population. The Wolof and Pulaar are also large ethnic groups. The Wolof population resides in and around Banjul, while the Pulaar groups are located in the interior. Smaller ethnic groups are the Joola, Serehule, Manjako, Bambara, and Aku. The official language is English. Although a small country, it is divided into five districts. For the purpose of public education, it is further divided into seven school districts which consists of 110 primary and secondary schools.

Primary education is free and extends through the first six years of school. A small tuition is charged at the secondary level. Junior secondary education lasts four years, while senior secondary education extends an additional six years and leads to the 'O' Level of the West African Examination Council. Post-secondary education is limited. Two vocational training centers are in operation at Yundum, near Banjul, and at Sapu, 175 miles up river. Yundum is also the site of the Teacher Training College.

Primary education is conducted in the local languages. English is gradually phased into the curriculum commencing with the second grade. After the third year, English becomes the only language of instruction, although the local languages continue to be taught. The study of English continues through secondary school. The methodology used in the early grades is predominantly audio-lingual, with reading and writing being introduced during the second year. Other foreign languages taught at the secondary level are French and Arabic.

As in other parts of Africa, the supply and quality of teachers is severely limited. The Gambia, however, has an additional problem in that there are no universities in the country. This situation alone dictates that teacher training is limited and must be accomplished within the country. Primary school teachers are trained locally, but possess no degree nor teaching certificate. Secondary school teachers must have both a Bachelor of Arts degree and a teaching certificate. Many Gambians, therefore, must receive advanced training overseas. Although some are trained

in other West African Anglophone nations, a substantial number attend British and American universities.

Some pedagogical training is accomplished in the country at the Teacher Training College at Yundum. The English Section of that institution is responsible for professional preparation of classroom teachers. This department offers a three-year course of study which includes two basic components of Methodology and English Improvement. Courses include general linguistics, several methodology courses in teaching composition, handwriting, audio-lingual pattern drill preparation, and classroom techniques. The English Improvement courses are remedial in nature. Their purpose is to assist the prospective teacher in eliminating grammatical errors and faulty pronunciation. A large part of the remedial coursework is devoted to providing reading opportunities to the trainees, since there are only a few English language publications in the country. This situation impedes advanced reading competence. In addition to this classroom training, each trainee is required to spend six weeks of each academic year teaching English in a public school. Observations and classroom visitations are conducted by the faculty of the English Section.

The Gambian adult functional literacy program has been in operation since 1976. Both the First National Development Plan 1975-80, and the Educational Policy 1976-86 contain statements and policies regarding such literacy programs to be geared to the rural populations of the country in local languages. Several organization began conducting literacy programs in 1976. Representatives from these organizations met and formed the National Literacy Advisory Committee as a means of coordinating all of the programs, as well as to supervise the development of materials and maintain communication with literacy campaigns in other African countries. The Committee agreed that the first stage of literacy would be in Gambian Mandinka, and that English would become the second stage. Programs in Wolof and Pulaar would be developed at a later date. However, the literacy programs were slow to develop, due to responsibilities for the program being divided among too many groups. This caused much work to be duplicated, and some important areas to be ignored or unproductive. This situation was eliminated in 1981, when the entire literacy program was placed under the jurisdiction of

the Ministry of Education's Department of Non-Formal Education.

One of the department's first tasks was to re-evaluate the Mandinka-first approach to literacy because of strong objections to this policy by the Wolof and Pulaar segments of Gambian society. A decision was reached to initiate adult literacy programs in Gambian Wolof and Pulaar concomitant with the Mandinka program, as well as to plan an orthography that would be used for, and compatible with, all three languages.[7] The development of the Pulaar materials was further complicated due to several dialects of that language spoken in The Gambia. However, Ministry statistics determined that 45 percent of all Pulaar in the country speak the Firdu dialect. Literacy materials, therefore, are being developed in that dialect, with materials in other dialects developed as needed.

The complete literacy program was redesigned in a more efficient manner, including the development of basic literacy materials and seminars for teacher training.[8] The material has as its pedagogically-determined base, a statistical analysis of the frequency of occurrence of the core vocabulary of the three languages.[9] This core vocabulary is the nucleus of a language which recurs with regularity, and consists of 50 percent of language use. The ability to use and manipulate the core vocabulary in terms of the contrasts and relationships included therein is a function of the competence of the native speaker. These contrasts and relationships are therefore exploited as a conscious teaching device.

The materials developed for the initial stage of the program consist of actual items, such as tools, clothing, vegetables, fruits, along with photographs and drawings of these and other items, i.e., bicycles, cars, kitchen and farm utensils. These are used to demonstrate the basic contrasts and relationships of the core vocabulary. Reading is taught with sight recognition of complete words before they are broken down into syllables. The program calls for the development of post-literacy materials with content revolving around rural life, including planting and harvesting techniques, village and personal hygiene, family planning, infant care, and related subjects. These materials will be distributed to reading

centers located in the larger villages in each district, and then disseminated to the smaller villages.

Notes

[1]Clive Brannett and Lorna Wandern, The Progressive Peak English Course, Nairobi: KIE, Ministry of Education, 1976.

[2]Safari English Course, Nairobi: KIE, Ministry of Education, 1981.

[3]Barbara Searle, Jamesine Friend, and Patrick Suppes, The Radio Mathematics Project 1974-75, Stanford: Institute for Mathematicl Studies in Social Sciences, Stanford University, 1976.

[4]Interview with Dr. J. I. M. Davy, Senior Lecturer, Department of Languages and Linguistics, Kenyatta University College, Nairobi, July, 1981.

[5]For a description of Waterside English, see Ian F. Hancock, "Some Aspects of English in Liberia," in J. L. Dillard, ed., Perspectives on Black English, Contributions to the Sociology of Language Series, Number 4, 1975, pp. 248-271.

[6]Theodora Ward Jackson, "Teacher Education and Benefits," Paper presented at the National Conference on Education, Monrovia, July, 1981.

[7]For a discussion of the problems and ultimate solutions of this orthography, see Report from the Seminar on the Formulation of a National Literacy Strategy, Banjul: Non-Formal Education Centre, 1981; Emanuel Williams, ed., Defined Orthography of Gambian Wolof, Banjul: Non-Formal Education Services, 1981; and Bakari K. Sidibe, A New Orthography of Gambian Mandinka, Banjul: National Literacy Advisory Committee, 1979.

[8]For a complete description of the Gambian adult functional literacy program, see Edmun B. Richmond, "The Development of a National Literacy Program: The Gambia Project," Language Problems and Language Planning, 6,2 (1982), pp. 154-165.

[9]Ibid.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS

This investigation into current policies in language and literacy teaching in seven multilinguistic societies of sub-Saharan Africa has focused on programs in indigenous and national languages, as well as the teaching of the official languages of French and English. It has described teacher training programs, adult functional literacy programs, and the use of language-by-radio services as a means to extend education over a large expanse of territory. Language education policies in both Francophone and Anglophone Africa have evolved from a Colonial Stage, through a Transitional Stage at independence, and an Early-Independence Stage, in which the language of instruction from the first day of primary school was the language of the colonial power. At independence, the colonial language became the country's official language with national languages being recognized, but by and large, the same educational policies were continued. In terms of educational and language reforms, 1974 saw the beginning of the Later-Independence Stage, in which a policy of instruction in the local languages in the first two or three primary years was instituted, with a gradual introduction of the official language which would be used in secondary school as the language of instruction. The last stage of this evolution was recognized as critical in the early 60s.[1] Educational as well as psychological considerations clearly emphasize that optimum conceptual learning occurs within the coding system of the child's naturally-learned language. At the age of six, the child has just mastered his native linguistic system. Attempts to express concepts in an unfamiliar linguistic system which is suddenly and totally imposed from the first day of school hinders verbal mediation coding, slows down the thought process, and retards communicative expression, all of which can produce frustration and anxiety.[2]

This concept applies equally well to adult success in functional literacy programs. With adult learners, other factors are involved. Unlike the child, an adult is often required to learn in the evenings after having worked during the day. They can be preoccupied with a wide variety of problems. In addition, adults need to see immediate personal

relevance to learning, as well as to see progress from one lesson to the next. If these conditions are not met, attrition in attendance will occur. Again, relevance and progress can best be demonstrated in the native language. But reading goes beyond just personal need satisfaction. Strang notes, "From an international viewpoint, reading is the key to communication and contributes to the solution of world problems of poverty and animosity."[3]

The priority and gaining importance of English and English language programs in Francophone Africa constitutes a major turning point in the educational systems of these countries, and is crucial to their survival in the modern world. Although still economically, militarily, and politically bound to France, the Francophone nations are committed to strengthening their lines of communication and trade with the English-speaking world. All of the four Francophone countries examined in this study have English-speaking nations among their principal trade partners. Senegal is the main entry point on the West African coast for air and sea traffic. Direct flights to and from England and the United States occur daily. Senegal's increased activity in international industry, commerce, shipping, and banking all require competence in English. Since the founding in December, 1981, of the Federation of Senegambia, Senegal's need for English is closer to home. Although a very loose federation, instruction in both French and English will take on new direction. Gabon exports petroleum to the United States and to the United Kingdom. The president of the republic wishes to strengthen ties with America, to extend the present trade partnership into other areas. Both Burundi and Rwanda have trade agreements with Britain and America, but are also in partnership with Kenya and Tanzania. Landlocked Rwanda and Burundi are seeking closer ties with their Anglophone neighbors on the east coast of the continent, not only as trade partners, but as an outlet for their products to the rest of the world. These nations recognize the preeminence of English as an international language, and consider English training to be part of the requirements and prerequisites to enter the mainstreams of life in the twentieth century.

Adult functional literacy programs are using a variety of methodologies. Rwanda's program is based on the frequency of occurrence of Kinyarwandan

syllables. The Gambian program has the indigenous core vocabulary as its central point. Such methodologies indicate an awareness of the need for a systematic analysis of the target language and the development of materials based on that analysis. Other programs are based on themes of local relevance, which incorporate vocabulary tied to that theme.[4] All of these program types can teach reading and writing to adult learners. No research has yet been attempted to prove which method and which type of materials is the most efficient and productive in terms of the amount of time and effort spent to attain functional literacy competence.

Certain problem areas have surfaced in terms of the type of script which is used in the development of materials and the type of script which is taught to the learners. The reason why the Liberian literacy program has published so few materials is their insistence on using the IPA symbols, instead of type faces which already exist on local typewriters and in local printshops. Using IPA symbols increases printing costs, since expensive special type faces must be purchased. Most literacy programs in Africa eventually abandoned this policy. Literacy officials in Burundi and Rwanda have noted the difficulty of adults to read different type faces. Both countries further complicate matters by teaching cursive writing first and introducing printing at a later time. Both of these tasks impede literacy acquisition, since they imply the acquisition of more than one learning task. There is absolutely no sound pedagogical reason for teaching a cursive writing style to functional literates. The concept of functional literacy includes only basic reading, writing, and numeracy skills which will lead to a more productive and informative life. Teaching a cursive writing style only complicates the learning process. The style of writing which is taught should be printing, since it most closely approaches type faces found on typewriters and in newspapers, official documents, and public notices. By teaching only one style of writing, the number of learning tasks is drastically reduced, and the time of acquisition of terminal literacy skills is shortened. It will further facilitate changeovers into literacy programs in the official languages.

The use of radio as a means of teaching languages is on the increase. African leaders are well aware

of the importance and power of radio as a means of bridging the tremendous overland distances in their respective countries. The use of radio is also intended to serve the purpose of national unity, not only by reducing these distances but also by helping to facilitate a moderation in tribal factionism in favor of a national consciousness. Many countries are utilizing radio services which are specifically tailored to the needs of the illiterate rural populations, by providing them with information on the national and local levels as well as educational programs which can affect their daily lives. Several countries are now establishing language learning programs which are directed toward adult learners as well as children in the public schools. Other programs are utilized to provide pedagogical training for teachers in the outlying areas. Such specialized radio services are in their infancy. Nevertheless, African leaders are realizing that radio can be used as a pedagaogical tool as well as to provide entertainment and information. Certainly, the RLA Project in Kenya is the most significant language-by-radio undertaking presently in operation in the countries included in this study. It is an ambitious attempt to develop a pedagogically-based radio course to teach aural and written comprehension of an official language. The development and subsequent success of these services depends on many factors. Plans and policies must be determined and implemented to schedule air-time over existing radio networks, or to institute an independent, specialized radio network complete with its own transmitting facilities, as has been accomplished in Upper Volta. The overriding factor here is cost. Burke agrees that "even though the use of radio would place important demands on administrators and organizers, the decision to use radio. . . would be a good one in the long run, both in terms of coverage and per capita cost."[5] But government funding is only part of the problem. Solutions to the problems of interfacing the radio programs with existing public school curricula, the preparation of supplementary materials, and appropriate teacher training to effectively use the programs to their greatest potential must also be addressed and solved. The use of radio as a means of providing in-service teacher training will help in solving the perennial problem of unqualified classroom personnel, but it cannot be viewed as an end in itself.

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In 1971, Dunstan described the dearth of qualified teachers in Africa.[6] This situation has not been relieved. Twenty years later, Jackson articulates the same concern by lamenting, "no real action has taken place."[7] Obah decries "the tragic ordering of priorities that prevail in most Third World countries..."[8] The most pressing educational priority is, and always has been, the lack of qualified teachers. The preparation of qualified and competent classroom personnel must remain the first priority of any nation. Concomitant with teacher training is the need for professionally competent administrators and specialists in curriculum development. Only then can programs based on pedagogically-determined criteria be developed and implemented. This includes teacher instruction not only in classroom techniques, but also in the production of materials. Working in isolated areas, teachers must be prepared to function as curriculum developers as well as classroom teachers. Materials must be sequenced into stages of difficulty, with the newer stages being based on the previous stages. Materials must include a schedule of re-entry of previously learned lessons. Well-constructed teacher manuals are a necessity. Testing and evaluation must also be integrated into the total program in order to provide feedback regarding its effectiveness. This will allow for continuation or modification of the program. Although some governments are actively engaged in this type of curriculum development, others can only hope for future backing and funding.

But it is not enough to train teachers in classroom methodology and materials development. Since all public education is eventually conducted in the official language of the country, i.e., a migrated European tongue, training must be provided to improve teacher competence in that language. In many areas, the teachers' command of the official language is marred with grammatical and pronunciation errors. The teachers learned the errors from their teachers, who were marginally competent and who made the same mistakes. The propagation of this linguistic domino phenomenon must be stopped. Intensive courses in the official language become absolutely imperative to break the cycle. In some of the Anglophone countries, there are no scholarships or provisions to provide the teacher with the experience of studying in an English-speaking country. This is part of the domino effect. But this situation will also tend to develop a class-

room English which exhibits certain strange isolated grammatical and pronunciation forms which deviate from English as it is spoken in real-life situations by native speakers of the language.

This is important in light of a growing controversy in regard to the various regional varieties of English which have developed in Africa.[9] This phenomenon does not appear to have happened in Francophone Africa. O'Hagan states that the French policy before independence was "to create French citizens rather than French-speaking Africans."[10] Golliet confirms this observation by writing that the African child learned French "comme un enfant français qui parle sa langue depuis toujours."[11] Dunstan summarized the British position, "In Anglophone Africa, the attitude of the British has tended to be that English is a world language and is therefore likely to develop an independent existence in Africa."[12] Certainly, dialectical variations are a natural phenomenon of language development. However, the point of contention is not the existence of the dialects, but their intelligibility. These variant forms of English have developed not by natural processes available to native English speakers, but by the processes of interference caused by the linguistic systems of non-native speakers of English. Transference of first language pronunciation and syntactic rules to the target language is a phenomenon confronted by all foreign language learners. If these behaviors are not terminated or, at least drastically subdued, they will become part of the learner's target language system. Posey admits such varieties of English "serve its national function just as well as a standard variety...to the extent that its very difference removes the last shred of colonial association by establishing a national pronunciation pattern."[13] This is exactly the philosophy in Kenya. This is why there are no native speakers of English used in the Kenyan RLA Project tapes.

But upon returning to Kenya after a long absence, your Kenyan friend greets you with, "Oh, you are lost." This is rendered in Standard English by "I haven't seen you for a long time." Now the problem of intelligibility is magnified to its true proportion. If local varieties of English deviate so much from standard varieties, the international aspect of English will be lost. One of the original purposes of

retaining the European language as the official language after independence was to facilitate not only national communication, but also international communication with other English- or French-speaking nations. This communication will be with native speakers of English, as well as with those who speak English as a second language. The obvious solution to the dilemma is to recognize two types of English, i.e., a local variety and an international variety. Both must be considered and treated in English programs in the Third World. With the recent impetus of comprehensive English programs in Francophone Africa, this dilemma touches these nations as well.

The problems discussed in this study are common to all seven nations, be they Anglophone or Francophone. All have a common need for well-qualified, competent teachers, and well-developed language and literacy programs. Teacher training programs are being established and implemented with the help of the French, British, and American governments, but the programs will take time to become productive, to develop and produce the number of qualified teachers necessary to reach the total population. African governmental support is also necessary, in words and deeds. Each government recognizes the importance of quality education as well as the need for qualified teachers. They must be willing to allocate funding to obtain both. It must be done now, because without these teachers, and the money to train and pay them, these countries will forever remain on the outskirts of the modern world.

Notes

[1]This policy was formulated at the UNESCO Meeting of Experts on the Use of the Mother Tongue for Literacy, Ibadan, Nigeria, 1964.

[2]For a comprehensive examination of anxiety motivation in foreign language learning, see Thomas Scovel, "The Effect of Affect on Foregin Language Learning: A Review of the Anxiety Research," Language Learning, 28,1 (1978), pp. 129-142.

[3]Ruth Strang, "How Successful Readers Learn: A Global View," in Ralph C. Staiger and Oliver Anderson, eds., Reading: A Human Right and a Human Problem, Proceedings of the Second World Congress on Reading, Copenhagen, Denmark, August 1-3, 1968, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969, p. 15.

[4]For an excellent discussion on the development of adult literacy materials, see Constance M. McCullough, Preparation of Textbooks in the Mother Tongue, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1974.

[5]Richard C. Burke, The Use of Radio in Adult Literacy Education, Amersham: Hulton Educational Publications, 1976, p. 10.

[6]Dunstan, "Language Teaching," pp. 576-577.

[7]Jackson, "Teacher Education," p. 10.

[8]Thelma Y. Obah, "Reading in Higher Education in Nigeria: Problems and Progress," Journal of Reading, 25,4 (1982), p. 317.

[9]For a discussion of this problem, see K. Subrahmanian, "Varieties of English: A Worldwide Question," John Povey, The Role of English in Africa," and Braj B. Kachru, "The New Englishes and Old Models," all in English Teaching Forum, 15,3 (1977), pp. 22-35; Anthony Kirk-Greene, "The Influence of West African Languages on English," in John Spencer, ed., The English Language in West Africa, London: Longman, 1971, pp. 123-144; and Manfred Görlach, ed., English World-Wide: A Journal of Varieties of English, Hiedelberg: Julius Groos Verlag, 1980.

[10]Charles O'Hagan, English-Medium Teaching in Kenya," Overseas Education, 34,4 (1962), pp. 99-106.

[11]Jacques Golliet, "Réflexions sur l'Enseignement du Français en Afrique Noire," Le Français dans le Monde, 45,11 (1966), p. 12.

[12]Dunstan, "Language Teaching," p. 571.

[13]Povey, "The Role of English," p. 28.

INDEX

Adult Functional Literacy, 3, 51, 52-53
  in Burundi, 27-28
  in Gabon, 18
  in Gambia, 47-49
  in Kenya, 41-42
  in Liberia, 45
  in Rwanda, 32-33
  in Senegal, 17
Africa,
  British East, 35
  Colonial period, 1-4
  French Equatorial, 18
  French West, 7
  German East, 21
Aku, 46
ALAC, Projet, 18-19, 25
American Cultural Center, 26, 31
ATES (Association of English Teachers of Senegal), 10
Arabic Language, 7, 8, 19, 46

Bakota, 18
Bambara, 46
Bantu languages, 18, 40
Bapounou, 18
Bassa, 43
Bassari, 7
Bateke, 18
Belgium, 21-22, 23
BEPA (Brevet d'Etudes Practiques d'Anglais), 11
BEPES (Bureau d'Etude des Programmes de l'Enseignement Secondaire), 20
British Council, 10-11
British-Senegalese Institute, 11, 16
Bureau Pédagogique, Rwanda, 30
Burundi, 21-28
  Adult literacy, 27-28
  American Cultural Center, 26-27
  BEPES, 20
  Concours, 23
  Ecole Moyenne Pédagogique, 25
  Ecole Normale, 24-25
  Flemish, use of, 23
  history, 21-23
  Kirundization et Ruralization, 23
  location, 21
  Projet ALAC, 25
  radio networks, 27
  school system, 23-25
  Université du Burundi, 25
    Faculty of Letters, 25
    language training, 25

CAEM (Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement Moyen), 13
CAES (Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement Secondaire), 13
CEAS (Comité pour l'Enseignement de l'Anglais au Sénégal), 10
CEG (Collège d'Enseignement Général), 15
Center for English Teaching, 10, 13
CIB (Curriculum Planning, Materials Production, and Book Development Group), 45
CLAD (Center for Applied Linguistics at Dakar), 8-9, 11, 19, 26
Collège du Saint Espirit, 22
Colonial Period, 1-4
  Burundi, 21, 22, 23
  Education, 3-4
    Gabon, 19
    Kenya, 35
    Senegal, 7
  Language usage in, 1
  Ruanda-Urundi, 21, 28
  Rwanda, 28
Concours, 23
Core vocabulary, 48, 53
CT/Anglais, 14, 15

Daily Observer, the, 44
Dakar, University of, 7, 11, 12
Dan, 43

DEA (Diplôme d'Etudes Approfondies), 12
DEPA (Diplôme d'Etudes Practiques d'Anglais), 11
Department of Non-formal Education, Gambia, 48
DFEM (Diplôme de Fin d'Etudes Moyennes), 14
DUEL (Diplôme Universitaire d'Etudes de Lettres), 12

Ecole Moyenne Pédagogique, 25
Ecole Normale, 24, 25
Ecole Normale Supérieure, 7, 11, 13-14, 21
Education, colonial period, 1-4, 22-23
Educational Policy 1976-86, Gambia, 47
Educational systems,
  in Burundi, 23-25
  in Gabon, 19
  in Gambia, 46-47
  in Kenya, 35-36
  in Liberia, 43
  in Rwanda, 29-30
  in Senegal, 7-8
English language, 8, 9-13, 14-17, 20-21, 23, 26-27, 30-31, 35, 36-38, 42, 43, 44, 46, 47, 52, 56-57
English programs,
  in Burundi, 26-27
  in Gabon, 19
  in Gambia, 46
  in Kenya, 36-39
  in Liberia, 43
  in Rwanda, 30-31
  in Senegal, 10-13, 14-17
English Teaching Institute, 31
English, varieties of, 56-57
Etats-Généraux, 8-9

First National Development Plan 1975-1980, Gambia, 47
Flemish language, 23
Four-Year Development Program of 1967, Liberia, 43
French Equatorial Africa, 18
French language, 7, 8-10, 18, 24, 25, 28, 29, 32, 46
French West Africa, 7

Gabon, 17-21
  ethnic groups, 18
  Institut National Pédagogique 20
  location, 17
  Peace Corps, 20-21
  Projet ALAC, 18
  public education, 19
  Université Omar Bongo, English curriculum, 19-20
Gambia, 45-49
  adult literacy, 47-49
  Educational Policy 1976-86, 47
  First National Development Plan 1975-80, 47
  languages spoken, 46, 48
  location, 45
  National Literacy Advisory Committee, 47
  public education, 46
  teacher training, 46-47
    Teacher Training College, 47
German East Africa, 21
Gola, 45
Grebo, 43, 45
Gusoma texts, 29

Hutu, 22, 28

Illiteracy, World Conference on the Eradication of, 3
Institut National Pédagogique, Gabon, 20

Jackson, Theodora Ward, 44, 55
Joola, 7, 8, 46

Kenya, 35-42
  adult literacy, 41-42
  Kenya Institute of Education, 36-37
  Kenyatta University College, 39-41

Dept. of Languages and Linguistics, 40-41
training of language teachers, 39-41
languages spoken, 35
location, 35
Ministry of Basic Education, 41
Ministry of Social Services, 41
Moy, Daniel arap, 41
public education, 35-36
Radio Language Arts Project, 37-39
Kenya Institute of Education, 36-37
Kenyan languages, 35
Kenyatta University College 39-41
Kinyarwanda, 22, 28, 32, 52
syllable-types, 32-33
Kinyarwandization et Ruralization, 29
Kirundi, 22, 24, 25, 27
Kirundization et Ruralization, 23
Kissi, 45
Kiswahili (Swahili), 27, 28, 32, 35, 36, 41
Kpelle, 43-45
Kra, 45
Kru, 43, 45

Language-by-Radio, 53-54
in Burundi, 27
in Gabon, 18
in Kenya, 37-39
in Liberia, 45
in Rwanda, 31-32
in Senegal, 16-17
Language Examinations,
BEPA, 11, 13
Cambridge English Language Examination, 11
DEPA, 11, 13
Language Families,
Chari-Nile, 35
Niger-Congo, 7
West Atlantic, 7
Law of August, 1966, Rwanda, 29
Liberia, 42-45
adult literacy, 45
CIB, 45
Daily Observer, the, 44
Four-Year Development Program of 1967, 43
Jackson, Theodora Ward, 44, 55
languages spoken, 43
location, 42
Ministry of Education, 44-45
public education, 43-44
teacher training, 44
Tubman Teachers College, 41
University of Liberia, 44
Waterside English, 43-44
Licence, teaching certificate, 19

Mandinka, Gambian, 48
Mandingo, 7, 46
Maninka, 7, 43
Manjako, 46
Mano, 43
M'Bete, 18
Ministry of Basic Education, Kenya, 41
Ministry of Education, Liberia, 44-45
Ministry of National Education, Senegal, 14, 15
Ministry of Social Services, Kenya, 41
Mweya Bible School, 26

National language, definition of, 2
National Literacy Advisory Committee, Gambia, 47
Niger-Congo language family, 7, 43

Official language, definition of, 2
of Burundi, 22
of Gabon, 18
of Gambia, 46

of Kenya, 35
of Liberia, 43
of Rwanda, 28
of Senegal, 7
Omar Bongo, Université, 19

Peace Corps, U.S., 10, 15-16, 20-21
Political Party of Burundi, 27-28
Projet ALAC, 18-19, 25
Pulaar, 7, 8, 46, 48
Firdu dialect, 48

Radio Language Arts Project, 37-39
Ruanda-Urundi, 21, 28
Rwanda, 28-33
adult literacy, 32-33
Bureau Pédagogique du Primaire, 44-45
Bureau Pédagogique, Section Anglais, 30-31
English Teaching Institute, 31
French language, introduction of, 29
Gusoma texts, 29
Kinyarwandization et Ruralization, 29
language-by-radio, 31-32
languages spoken, 28
Law of August, 1966, 29
location, 28
Ruralization, programs of study, 30

Sarakole (Serehule), 7, 46
Senegal, 7-17
adult literacy, 17
BEPA, 11
British Council, 10-11
British-Senegalese Institute, 11, 16
CAEM, 13
CAES, 13
CEAS, 10
Center for English Teaching, 10, 13
CLAD, 8-9, 11, 19, 26
CT/Anglais, 14, 15
DEA, 12
DEPA, 11
DFEM, 14
DUEL, 12
Ecole Normale Supérieure, 7, 11, 13-14, 21
English-by-radio, 16, 17
English teaching, 10-17
Etats-Généraux, 8-9
languages spoken, 7
location, 7
Ministry of National Education, 14, 15
Peace Corps, 10, 15-16
political regions, 7
school system, 7-8
University of Dakar, 7, 11, 12-13
English Department, 12-13
USIA, 10, 15
Sereer, 7, 8
Soninke, 7
Swahili (Kiswahili), 27, 28, 32, 35, 36, 41

Teacher Training College, Gambia, 46
Tubman Teachers College, Liberia, 41
Tutsi, 22, 28
Twa, 22, 28

UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), 3, 26
UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), 3, 15, 28
Université du Burundi, 25
Université Gaston Berger, 12
Université Omar Bongo, 19-20
University of Dakar, 7, 11, 12
University of Liberia, 44
USIA (United States Information Agency), 10, 15
USAID (United States Agency for International Development), 37, 38

70 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Vai, 45
Vandi, 45

Waterside English, 43-44
West African Examination
  Council, 46
West Atlantic language
  family, 7, 43
Wolof, 7, 8, 17, 46, 48
World Conference on the
  Eradication of Illiteracy,
  3

Yundum, Teacher Training
  College, 46

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